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ABSTRACT

This handbook contains nine sections dealing with the administration of learning resource centers in urban community colleges. Learning resource center objectives, both general and specific, are described, and organization and administration are discussed. The remaining seven sections all deal with various personnel questions: personnel directives, separation from service, development of staff (inservice training), performance evaluation, promotions-transfers-tenure, working conditions, welfare and economic conditions, and staff relationships. (WH)

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AN ADMINISTRATIVE HANDBOOK AND GUIDE
FOR
COMMUNITY/JUNIOR COLLEGE LEARNING RESOURCES DIRECTORS

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Prepared by

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The USOE Title II-B Institute

"Education for Librarianship in Urban Community Colleges"

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PREFACE

The contents of this handbook represent many hours of research on the part of participants in an "INSTITUTE FOR URBAN COMMUNITY COLLEGE LIBRARIANSHIP" funded by a USOE grant to the Graduate Library School, Indiana University. The participants have addressed themselves to a felt need for a "tool, a practical guide," which would assist them in coping with the administrative demands of the community college environment, which they will hopefully soon enter.

Library literature is NOT replete with similar projects of this nature. In fact, the absence of citations regarding this subject is blatantly apparent when such a bibliographic investigation is undertaken. If in responding to their own felt needs, they have spoken to the needs of other LRC directors, librarians....then this effort may have supplemental benefits.

Of particular utility in the organization of this Handbook was the Library Administration Division's (ALA) publication, Personnel Organization and Procedure; A Manual Suggested for Use in College and University Libraries, 2nd ed., 1968.

The name of the individual responsible for each segment is found directly below that segment's title. This Handbook represents only one of several projects which these participants have experienced. We feel it's contents speak to areas of significant importance for community college librarians....How well it accomplishes it's purpose is for you, the reader, to decide.

Charles E. Hale
USOE Institute Director

CONTENTS

Section I. LRC OBJECTIVES: GENERAL & SPECIFIC
....*Charles E. Hale*................. 1

Section II. ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

---GOVERNMENT....*Charles E. Hale*...................... 5

---SUPPORT & BUDGETS....*San Juanita Reyes*............ 9

---ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION....*Yvany Eckley*....... 32

Section III. LRC PERSONNEL DIRECTIVES

---CLASSIFICATION OF POSITIONS....*Isidro Chavez, Jr.*. 44

---JOB DESCRIPTIONS....*Moxine Strawder*............... 50

---RECRUITMENT....*Joe Benson, Margaret Elliott,*
and Sheila Smith................. 69

---APPOINTMENTS (SELECTION & PLACEMENT)
....*Charles E. Hale*................. 90

Section IV. SEPARATION FROM SERVICE

---RETIREMENT, RESIGNATIONS, & TERMINATION
....*Charles E. Hale*................. 103

Section V. DEVELOPMENT OF STAFF (IN-SERVICE TRAINING)

---IMPLEMENTING IN-SERVICE PROGRAM
....*Carolyn Yvonne McIntosh*......... 106

---EVALUATING PROGRAM....*Robert Martinez*............. 114

---PROFESSIONAL UPGRADING & PROFESSIONAL
AFFILATION & ACTIVITIES....*Charles E. Hale*........ 129

Section VI. PERFORMANCE EVALUATION

---PERSONNEL PERFORMANCE EVALUATION
....*Roy Cajero*...................... 132

Section VI. PROMOTION, TRANSFERS, TENURE
....*Charles E. Hale*................. 146

Section VII. WORKING CONDITIONS

---WORK WEEK & WORK LOAD....*Janice Johnson*........... 153

---LEAVES OF ABSENCE....*Charles Ransom*................ 160

---SABBATICAL LEAVES....*Doris Greer*.................. 168

Section VIII. WELFARE & ECONOMIC BENEFITS

---LIFE INSURANCE & RETIREMENT PLANS
....*Patricia Washington*............. 173

---HEALTH (HOSPITAL & MEDICAL) INSURANCE
....*Patricia Keith*.................. 187

Section IX. STAFF RELATIONSHIPS

---STAFF PARTICIPATION IN MANAGEMENT & STAFF MEETINGS
....*Michael Roseborough*............. 198

---STAFF ASSOCIATIONS & STAFF COMPLAINTS OR GRIEVANCES
....*Earl Bean*....................... 206

INTRODUCTION

This LRC Administrative Handbook has as its primary purpose the development of a management tool, adaptable and flexible, yet succinctly as possible defining the supportive administrative framework required by LRC administrator and staff member alike. Successful management of a community college LRC requires the development of such varied administrative abilities and skills as: ability to observe behavior and routines; ability to communicate information and values; concern for the need of employees; willingness to change procedures and question assumptions; ability to work as a supervisor and as a peer with employees; and perceptions of the consequences of decisions.

Focusing our efforts on these "managerial skills," an attempt will be made to formulate in this handbook a skeletal framework which will be adaptable and suitable for use by any LRC Director. The major ingredient missing from this skeletal framework, an enlightened service-oriented LRC Director and staff, can give it an "essence, a life."

OBJECTIVES

Objectives of the College

1. It is recommended that prior to any enumeration of Learning Resources Center objectives, general or specific, that the objectives of the parent institution be identified. These objectives, found for the

most part in the college catalog of the institution, give a "raison d'etre" not only for the institution's existance, but are applicable and binding on all other segments (library included) of the college community. It is only natural that the goals or objectives of the LRC are the bases for, and extensions of, the college's stated objectives. Similarly, the LRC's objectives, when stated in relation to the objectives of the college, should indicate said relationship in such dimensions as:[1]

a. An instructional unit

b. An aid to research

c. Additional services to students, faculty, and the community

General in nature and all-encompassing, the objectives of the community college serve as guides for the development of LRC objectives. LRC objectives can be divided conveniently into general and specific objectives. The former identify primarily what kind of enterprise the Learning Resources Center wants to be or hopefully become. They likewise suggest the character or image of the library, while specific objectives indicate not only what the library wishes to accomplish but the time sequence in which these goals will be accomplished.

General Objectives of the LRC

1. General objectives essentially cover all the major activities essential to the survival of the library:[2]

   a. Patrons/Users

b. Services

c. Personnel Resources

d. Financial Resources

e. Communtiy Responsibilities and Involvement

2. The ACRL/AACJC/AECT Guidelines, in speaking to the subject of goals and objectives, suggests:

> "....because of its direct relationship to the institutional and instructional objectives, the LRC program has a fourfold role:
>
> a. To provide leadership and assistance in the development of instructional systems which employ effective and efficient means of accomplishing those objectives.
>
> b. To provide an organized and readily accessible collection of materials and supportive equipment needed to meet institutional, instructional, and individual needs of students and faculty.
>
> c. To provide a staff qualified, concerned and involved in serving the needs of students, faculty, and community.
>
> d. To encourage innovation, learning and community service by providing facilities and resources which will make them possible."[3]

3. We, as community college LRC directors or librarians, may alter, delete, or make additions to this fourfold role. Yet, the content areas suggested offer "fertile ground" for individual variations.

Specific Objectives of LRC

1. Specific objectives differ from general objectives, in that they translate the general,sometimes unidentifiable goals into concrete, meaningful, and measurable targets.

2. Specific objectives indicate WHAT is to be accomplished and not HOW it is to be accomplished.

3. Specifc goals should cover all the resources of the library: human, material, and financial.

4. Again, the ACRL/AACJC/AECT Guidelines identify more succinctly areas for one's consideration by suggesting that LRC programs:

> "....exist to facilitate and improve learning, are an integral part of instruction; provide a variety of services as an integral part of the instructional process, namely:
>
> a. Instructional development functions (namely, task analysis, instructional design, evaluation, and related research).
>
> b. Acquisition of print and non-print materials (including selection, cataloging, and related services).
>
> c. Production
>
> d. User services (to include reference, bibliographic compilation and circulation, transmission and dissemination, library orientation and education).
>
> e. Other services essential to the information, recreational, and cultural development of the patron.
>
> And finally, LRC programs cooperate in the development of area, regional, and state networks, consortia or systems."[4]

Whether objectives are determined by the director, unilaterally, or through a democratic, participative manner involving both administration and staff, objectives are not formulated in a vacuum. They are devised for, affected by, and a result of an "environmental milieu" in which the library or learning resources center finds itself. Thus, the LRC exists in a number of environments (technological, economic, social, legal, and competitive) and each requires a recognition of and need for consideration and projected copeability.

ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

Government

1. The government of the LRC is basically determined by the political, geographical, and institutional setting in which it is located. Whether the point of differentiation is public or private, urban or rural, the governance of the LRC is directly related to, and basically defined by the governmental structure of the institution of which it is an integral part. Likewise, a differentiation as to external and internal governance of the LRC might prove a convenient division for this area of the Handbook.
2. This segment of the Administrative Handbook might begin with a brief description of the historical origins of the college and its library. Here one might include the "external governance" aspects mentioned earlier, identifying the college's heirarchical authority and its governmental structure.
3. As regards the internal government, one would identify the responsibilities and functions of Learning Resources programs within the institutional structure and the status of the chief administrator and heads of Learning Resources Units.
4. Guy Lyle writes,

   "The code of library government should cover four major areas:

   a. The relationship of the librarian to higher authority

      1) The basis of appointment and the officer to whom the librarian (LRC Director) is directly responsible.

      2) The major duties of the librarian and his relationship to administrative and educational committees.

b. Control of library resources

    1) The nature of library materials (books, periodicals, microfilms, film, etc.)

    2) The control and administration of these materials wherever they may be located

c. The library committee

    1) Method of appointment (often already determined by the institutional heirarchy)

    2) Composition

    3) Term of office

    4) Advisory duties and responsibilites

d. Library staff"[5]

    1) Different from those enumerated by Lyle, here one might find reference to "managerial style" which the LRC reflects. Here one may find a statement indicating role of staff in decision-making process, involvement of staff in LRC governance,a delineation as to staff components, rank and organizational elements in LRC administrative heirarchy.

5. Michael M. Reynolds suggests in his book, Reader in the Academic Library, an idea somewhat duplicate to Lyle's, yet identifies the following major categories as areas to be considered in developing the library governmental policy:[6]

    a. A clear definition of the physical aspects of the library

    b. An unequivocal statement in regard to personnel

    c. Objectives of the library in relation to those of the college

    d. A statement concerning library finances

    e. A statement on the library committee

6. Adeline Tallau and Benjamin R. Beede, in speaking to the subject of library governance in their Library Journal article, "Faculty Status and Library Governance," quotes the ACRL Academic Status Committee standards:

> "College and university libraries should adopt an academic form of governance. The librarians should form a library faculty, whose role and authority is similar to that of the faculties of departments, schools, or colleges."[7]

Continuing, Tallau and Beede suggest other areas that might be considered under Reynolds' and Lyle's category of "library personnel or staff," namely:

> "The library faculty should be expected to take a comprehensive view of the library system, its objectives, its resources, and its problems, and to suggest innovations, to plan and to propose alternative solutions to the problems."[8]

They continue:

> "With an academic management model, librarians [and I would add, staff] must accept responsibility for actively participating in the making of decisions and the setting of priorities."[9]

And finally:

> "In matters of internal governance, the library will operate like other academic units with respect to decisions relating to appointments, promotions tenure, and conditions of service."[10]

Although such areas as appointments, promotions, tenure, library support and finances, etc., are covered separately, and in depth in subsequent sections of this handbook, a general introductory statement may be made in this section.

Footnotes

[1] Michael M. Reynolds, Reader in the Academic Library, (Washington, D.C.: Microcard ed., 1969), p. 113.

[2] William T. Newell, "Long-Range Planning for Library Managers," PNLA Quarterly (October 1966): 27.

[3] "Guidelines for Two-Year College Learning Resources Programs," Audiovisual Instruction (January 1973): 50-61.

[4] Ibid., 54.

[5] Guy R. Lyle, The Administration of the College Library, (New York: H.W. Wilson, Co., 1961), p. 33.

[6] Reynolds, Reader in the Academic Library, p. 113.

[7] Adeline Tallau and Benjamin R. Beede, "Faculty Status and Library Governance," Library Journal (June 1, 1974): 1521.

[8] Ibid., 1522.

[9] Ibid.

[10] Ibid., 1521.

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"Guidelines for Two-Year College Learning Resources Programs," Audiovisual Instruction (January 1973): 50-61.

Lyle, Guy R. The Administration of the College Library. New York: H.W. Wilson Co., 1961.

Newell, William T. "Long-Range Planning for Library Managers," PNLA Quarterly (Oct. 1966): 21-35.

Reynolds, Michael M. Reader in the Academic Library. Washington, D.C.: Microcard Eds., 1969.

Tallau, Adeline and Beede, Benjamin R. "Faculty Status and Library Governance," Library Journal (June1, 1974):

Support

Introduction

Probably of no greater concern to librarians, irrespective of type of library, is the financial milieu, in which we now find ourselves. A reduction in sources of funds and ways of meeting increasing demands for information coupled with the spiraling inflationary costs of this information have precipitated an "accountability shock" for many librarians.

These librarians, who have established and easily identified "reservoirs of funds" are generally representatives of the "public sector." It is readily acknowledged that the library functions in a number of environments, and that the librarian, of necessity, must be constantly aware and knowledgeable of the "economic environment" in which the library exists. This economic environment includes these "reservoirs of funds" referred to earlier. Presently, the status of these funds may be described as "one in which supplies (finances) are dwindling, whereas demand seems to be one of ever-increasing need and discontented customers."

This segment of the Handbook will not deal with budgetary methods which are commonplace today, i.e., "lump-sum budgets," "object of expenditure or line-item budgets," or even "performance budgeting." Rather, this segment wil comprise the following two areas:

1. Funding as related to program development, and
2. PPBS (Planning-Programming-Budgeting System) - a somewhat more recent tool, which librarians are reviewing most critically for library application.

As the reader will readily determine, the position which both papers take focus on the underlying theme that budgeting and library program development are inseparable....that to consider one without the other is not only inappropriate but perpetuates a "myopic condition" which librarians are acknowledging needs "corrective action" - i.e., "near-sightedness" in planning, budgeting, and programming is less preferred to the "far-sightedness" which we need to develop.

Program Development and Funding

Wilma Miller

To a great extent, procedures for program development and funding will be determined by the individual institution. Dependent on the rigidity of the administration, the process will vary. Most administrations have some type of procedure that is adhered to when seeking program development resources and funding. Inherent in any institution, is the necessity for the chief administrator (president) to be aware of and support efforts of proposal and funding before outside funding is pursued. We are suggesting here that not only are we providing procedural methods for fund establishment from within the library, but also within the institution, i.e., between a segment of the institution (in this case the library) and the institution.

Within a close-knit organization such as a library setting would suggest, we recognize that there are liberal and conservative viewpoints resulting in personality conflict. Therefore, we must be receptive to human feelings and recognize that rigid guidelines for the purpose of establishing hierarchical procedures would defeat our intent. Therefore, no rigid guidelines as regards the library is suggested. We should hope that persons interested in program development will be instrumental in keeping this subject an active concern and integral part of staff and faculty associations and meetings. However, for the purpose of recognition and credit, there should be kept in the library a file listing the prime initiators of various program development ideas and proposals. Synopsis of the programs with information concerning those who have responsibility for the program should also be maintained within the file. The file should be accessible to all faculty and staff within the Learning Resources Center (LRC). In addition, the administrator of the LRC shall be responsible for maintaining complete copies of submitted programs.

In the LRC, one should not see any inconsistency arising with the liberal nature of its existance concerning program development and funding and the more rigid guidelines expressed by the institution. The chain of command of an institution could require that when submitting a proposal for funding that after (and only after) its acceptance by the departmental chief (i.e., chief librarian), it be submitted to the developing and funding committee or similarly prescribed committee. This committee is comprised of various elements within the college. The primary purpose of this committee is two fold:

1. It will serve as a recommending body (screening agent) for any proposals submitted from within the institution. Programs must have the approval of this body (as specified by its guidelines) before it is presented to any other levels

for approval.

2. It will serve to direct, organize, structure, and orient "idea" programs for development and/or funding.

This writer would make the suggestion that it is to the library's advantage to have someone on this committee at all time if at all possible. There are two primary reasons for this recommendation:

1. There should be someone on the committee who is aware of and sensitive to library needs.
2. This person can serve as an enlightened resource individual and in-house person for program development as it relates to the entire institution's developmental program.

This person should be an administrator who, ideally, is aware of the budgetary concerns and constraints of the library.

After the screening committee has reviewed, modified (if needed), and accepted the program, it is presented to an administrative committee. This committee is composed of the three deans of the institution. It can by majority vote (two or more) elect to:

1. Accept the proposal unconditionally.
2. Accept it conditionally - with a rider to the effect that a subsequent segment must be changed or altered.
3. Reject it.

If the proposal is rejected by this committee, it can be accepted by the president, making void the rejection. However, if the proposal is rejected by the president also, it is void. If the proposal is accepted by both committees and the president, it is submitted to a body or foundation that might support it. Information identifying foundations and associated support activities can be found in Annual Register of Grant Support. This is one of many Academic Media publications concerning proposal development and funding.

However, if the president rejects the proposal, after it has been approved by both committees, the proposal is delayed until he prepares a written statement stipulating reasons for his rejection. He must in this case correspond in writing as to why, specifically, he rejects the proposal. He should respond, in writing, to all written inquiries and responses from the committee concerning the proposal. The proposal could be accepted and carried out after the differences of opinion have been resolved.

Hence, as presented, there are three steps necessary, as regards the "mechanics" of program development and funding:

1. Screening committee
2. Administrative committee
3. President of the college

Following are modified guidelines or suggestions for LRC administrators as to steps and procedures to be followed when involved in program development and funding considerations: (The term "modified" is used advisedly since we have attempted to adhere to the general guidelines of the community college, and have added input which we feel directly speaks to library concerns - such as services and assessing needs of the community that we are serving. It is hoped that these suggestions will serve as a model for channeling the staff and faculty who have innovative ideas and input for programs.)

Developmental Model for a Program Proposal

I. State long-range goals and philosophy of the program.

II. Ascertain the needs of the institutional department and/or community that the program intends to accomodate.

III. Determine to some extent individual involvement in developing the program.
   A. Consider the resources of the individuals who will be participating.
      1. Monetary
      2. Resource persons
      3. Planning ability/content
   B. Consider to what extent the program can be pre-structured.
      1. The structure of the program - if possible should never be too rigid.
      2. Eliminate structuring the content, methods, techniques, and tasks of the program, unless the specificity of the program demands this.
         a. There should be a flexible outline of the program.
         b. Place/time constraints set up initially can be changed in conjunction with time/place constraints of participants and/or employees.

IV. Identify objectives of the program.
   A. What will be benefits of the program?
   B. What will be accomplishmentsof the program?

V. Identify budgetary constraints.

VI. Locate resources to be employed.
   A. Resource persons
   B. Materials as defined by content and structure of the program
   C. Foundation-Organization - possible monetary resources, identifiable funding sources.
   D. Faculty and/or staff to be utilized.

VII. Identify goals of the program.

VIII. Plan for the evaluation of the program.
   A. Plan for some type of formative evaluation(s).
   B. Plan for a summative evaluation.
   C. Plan for an outside evaluator and/or an in-house evaluator.
   D. Plan for final coordination of evaluative results.

IX. Plan for promotion and implementation of program.

X. Evaluate the program in light of:
   A. Participant gains
   B. Participant satisfaction
   C. Participant competencies

XI. Reconstruct program in light of evaluation.

This program model is purposely generic in nature. In the case of the LRC, its use is intended for programs pertaining to staff/faculty growth (such as in in-service training programs) as well as programs designed for patron/user benefits.

Appendix:

Here are other suggested readings that should aid the serious proposal writer in the art of program development and funding.

Grantsmanship. Indianapolis: Indiana University-Purdue University, Office of Sponsored Programs, 1970.
A sufficiently detailed account of grant writing information from how to take the first steps to budget preparation and research planning.

Grantsmanship News. New York: University Resource Inc., 1973-74.
A monthly publication in newsletter format that gives helpful tips in grantsmanship.

Hall, Mary. Developing Skills in Proposal Writing. Corvallis, Oregon: Oregon State System, Office of Federal Relations, University Campus, 1971.
A basic book spelling out how to develop skills in proposal writing.

Lewis, Marianna, ed. The Foundation Directory. 3rd ed. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1967.
A listing of foundations by states, with background information, such as location, donor, purpose, and financial data on each foundation.

Noe, Lee, ed. The Foundation Grants Index, 1970-1971. New York: Columbia University Press, 1972.
A cumulative two-year listing of grants given by foundations. Arranged alphabetically by names of foundations; there are seven major sub-headings, such as education, in which the grants are grouped.

Sclar, Deanna, ed. and the Staff of Academic Media. Annual Register of Grant Support 1973/74. Orange, N.J.: Academic Media, 1973.
A detailed and comprehensive guide to fellowships, grant support programs of government agencies, foundations, and business and professional organizations.

Successful Grantsmanship: A Comprehensive Guide. Littleton, Colorado; Grant Development Institute.
A most helpful and important tool in grant writing, planning, and development. In a looseleaf format, it has information on fundamentals (writing and evaluating); secrets (traps to avoid and do's and don'ts); tools of grant development (project proposal forms, grant feasibility forms, etc.).

Planning-Programming-Budgeting System in Library Management

San Juanita P. Reyes

In this part of the Handbook we will attempt to look at the Planning-Programming-Budgeting Systems approach as a management technique to both decision-making and budgeting. An attempt will be made to introduce a PPBS model which could be applied to particular budgeting situations in Learning Resources Centers.

During the last few years there has emerged a great deal of interest and literature on the subject of PPB as a system or management approach which provides assistance to policy makers and managers in their work. Before beginning with a close look at how the system works, a brief definition is offered of the technique as being a budgetary system "aimed at helping management make better decisions on the allocation of resources among alternative ways to attain objectives."[1] One may ask just how different is PPBS from the regular decision-making process where there exists a number of alternative ways of attaining an objective from which a choice is made? The answer to this question is not in the individual decision-making technique used in PPB for the technique is no different from that which has always been used: the objective is identified; information about it is gathered and analyzed; alternative ways of attaining the objective are proposed; and ultimately, the decision makermakes a choice from several alternatives. "The difference lies in the concept that PPB is a systems analysis approach to achieving an ultimate objective."[2] This means that in addition to weighing the relative value of one alternative over another to achieve an objective, one now begins to think in terms of how that objective contributes to the process of achieving the organization's ultimate objective or mission. It demands that the item one is paying for buy some future value. This PPB system analysis approach requires answers to the question, "How well does this system meet the system's goals as compared to other possible systems?" And, these goals are stated in terms of concrete, measurable benefits to be achieved, in addition to the ability of the system to meet the needs of the future.

In a sense, there has always been a bit of PPB in every budgeting system for budgeting has always been conceived as a process for systematically relating expenditures of funds to accomplishment of objectives. However, PPB is much more than just budgeting. One might say that it is a "marriage between program planning and budgeting,"[3] Without this marriage planners might lose touch or forget the constraints of limited resources, while budget makers might entirely be blind to the contents of plan and programs. In general, planning has probably always been closely linked to budget preparation but it would seem to be a mistake to disregard entirely the management and control elements in the preparation of the budget Clearly, one of the major aims of PPB is to convert the annual routine of preparing a budget into a conscious appraisal and formulation of future goals and policies. The planning part would involve the determination of objectives, the evaluation of alternative courses of action and the authorization to select programs. The management part would involve the programming of approved goals into specific projects and activities, the design of organizational units to carry out these programs and the staffing of these units and procurement of resources. Finally, the control element would involve establishing standards of evaluation and feedback reporting of the programs and activities approved with particular emphasis on future implications.

How would PPBS improve library management and budgeting? What advantages does this system have over budgeting techniques? One of the primary advantages that PPB has which would make it effective in library management has already been partially pointed out in the initial definition given of the system. The purpose of PPB is to help management make better decisions by planning alternative ways of achieving planned objectives. It so happens that the foundation on which PPB rests, is the comparative evaluation of alternative programs for achieving the same objective. This evaluation has the advantage that comparative cost benefit and cost effectiveness data are required so that costing of library operations must be done, thus setting the basis for a more formal analysis of cost benefits. "Cost-benefit analysis is really a microscopic look at costs in terms of their benefits. It is comparative."[4] For example, a library's cost study of use of books by itself is nothing. There would be only figures. But if microforms, periodicals and non-print media were also analyzed, then there would be some comparison on which to base effectiveness.

Another significant advantage of PPB is that the system distinctly spells out from the beginning the program objectives and further attempts to quantify them by providing (a) data on costs and benefits of alternative ways of attaining the proposed objectives, and (b) output measurements to facilitate the effective attainment of chosen objectives. PPBS, thus, not only attempts to improve decision-making by mobilizing and organizing what information exists, but it also tries to identify and develop necessary additional data and insights so that we may better understand the relationships between objectives, costs, and accomplishments.

Five major components of the planning-programming-budgeting systems approach have been identified from the literature currently available on PPBS. These are summarized as follows:

1. Development and organization of program information:
   Identification of objectives.
2. Analysis of alternative policies:
   Identification of alternative ways of carrying out objectives as well as their risks and costs.
3. Identification of programs with their necessary resources:
   Guidance for resource allocation.
4. Evaluation:
   Information on achievement, costs and problems.
5. Planning and not forecasting:
   Examination of cost and benefit information or relevant alternative courses of action for the future.

Basically, then, the components of PPBS mean that (a) the library's objectives would have to be defined; (b) alternative courses of action would have to be planned; (c) all pertinent costs would have to be considered; (d) systematic analysis of alternatives would have to be performed; and ultimately, (e) future year implications have to be explicitly defined. With this in mind, then, it is possible to present a model that could be applied to particular situations in implementing a

PPBS program. Harold R. Jenkins, Director of the Lancaster County Library, Lancaster, Penn., presented the following PPBS model at the Institute on Library Management, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, on April 21, 1971.[5] The major part of his model is presented here with a few expansions we have made from research literature on the subject.

PPBS Model

I. State your mission, i.e., your ultimate objective. (What are we? and Why are we here?) It is utmost that this ultimate objective be defined accurately, clearly, and briefly. It should define the specific functions and responsibilities which justify its continuing support. This mission statement results from a detailed analysis to determine the role of the Learning Resources Center within the larger college institution. We must make clear, of course, that this statement is by no means intended to be permanent. Conditions are constantly changing and it is therefore important to review the statement periodically to determine if it is still satisfactory. It would be well to note that the writing of this statement be precise eliminating nebulous words or phrases and that its construction should probably be made by a working planning team representative of the library administration and of the funding sources.[6]

David Sellers, in his article entitled, "Basic Planning and Budgeting Concepts for Special Libraries"[7] suggests a further expansion of this mission statement by including what he calls "Guiding Principles" - that is, "In view of our mission, what are our beliefs?" This set of principles provides a more detailed and specific view of organizational policy and ethics and thus, may include statements on Selection Policies, Facilities, Human Relations and Service.

Having established the ultimate objective and the library's guiding principles, the LRC planning team can formulate its continuing objectives. (Where are we going?) These are identified, again, in precise, but simple, straight forward terms that can be easily understood. We should make certain that these objectives are compatible with the ultimate mission of the LRC.

II. Identify yourbasic programs or functions. These represent the activities or programs which will accomplish your objectives. The example Jenkins provides in his model is that of a public library which serves a city and county area. In identifying the basic functions, he lists the following:

1. Library materials

2. Cooperative efforts
3. Working with independent libraries
4. Extension service
5. Communication
6. Administration - all of these functions (1-5) are tied together in this basic function called administration.

Expanding on one of the basic functions listed above, a narrative statement for Point 4 is given:

Function: Extension Service
Statement: The overall plan for extending the library program throughout the county calls for the provisions of outreach service designed to meet the needs of all citizens. This means that programs will be enlarged - limited only by money, imagination and need - to the point where library service is brought within the reach of all citizens. The program will be developed to a point of excellence where it will not be necessary for a user from any part of the county to make direct use of the headquarters library unless he desires to do so....

III. Subdivide these basic functions so that each activity making up your total operation is visible. For example, subdividing the activities under the basic function of Extension Service, we would find the following sub-functions:

1. Service to nursing homes
2. Service to one room schools
3. Service to the inner city
4. Service to the handicapped
   etc.

Here, you should account for every activity that is important enough to deserve the visibility that it will be given through such a listing.

IV. Define each sub-program as follows:

a. Make a simple statement of why you do what you want to do and where you want to do it.

b. Make another simple statement telling how to do what you want to do.

c. Make a statement of the costs in money, time or energy to carry out each sub-program.

At this point we can introduce three terms that are often used with the PPB line of thinking. These are a) Program Memorandum, b) Program Structure, and c) Program Financial Plan. In other words, these are why, the how, and the cost as defined above.

An example of a Program Memorandum that Jenkin's model provides is the following:

Program Memorandum:
No. 4A

Subject: Service to the disadvantaged in the inner-city area.

Statement: The library recognizes the need and actual hunger for library service among the disadvantaged citizens of the inner-city area. However, the majority of these people themselves do not know what it is they need, why they need it or where they can find what they are looking for when they do understand their need. The main library is a short distance in miles from the people but endlessly distant because of the cultural and economic lag that exists in many areas of the city. The latter is a problem for the sociologists; but the problem of providing every possible avenue for learning, for pleasure and for growth in cultural pride lies squarely in the lap of the management of the library. Accordingly, our program will be one of carrying the message of library service to these people.

The memorandum here gives only the "what" and the "why" and nothing more. It merely says that "the program will be one of carrying the message of library service ...." which has left flexibility as to the "how."

After you have established your memorandum, the next step is to consider various alternative ways of going about carrying the message....From these possible alternatives, you will finally chose one which seems to meet your needs most effectively. Once you have decided, you will then have to prepare your Program Structure statement. Jenkins' example of one is presented here to follow the memorandum already given:

Program Structure:
No. 4AA

Subject: Service to the disadvantaged in the inner-city area.

Statement: Having determined that our program is one of carrying the message of library service to the disadvantaged of the inner-city, and also having determined that this message is one concerned with the provision of library material and service relating to information, education and recreation, we have concluded that the best way to carry this message seems to be by setting up a temporary base in the form of a trailer library from which the outreach program can be carried on. The trailer will be staffed by a professional librarian having special training in service to the disadvantaged, two assistants from the larger ethnic groups- Black and Spanish, and one clerk. To facilitate their work we will provide a general collection of books plus special collections of Black and Spanish literature. To promote mobility we will need a van that will make it possible for the staff to reach all communities in the area. In addition, there will be a motion picture projector, filmstrip projector, amplifying equipment, book racks, book bags, telephone, electrical service as well as insurance. It should also be noted that this will be a continuing program that will require support on an annual, recurring basis.

Note that the structure has been formed so as to reflect all costs involved in carrying out the full purpose of the memorandum. It explains *how* the idea may be implemented, but it is not at all detailed or quantified to the extent that it will prescribe the manner in which the various ingredients of staff, equipment and library material will be combined to carry out the purpose.

Your next step is to define estimated or actual costs as outlined in the Program Structure into the Program Financial Plan. These costs may be divided into three major categories:

a. Direct costs including labor and materials. These are those costs that are primarily consumed by the program itself such as personnel, equipment, and supplies.

b. Shared costs including labor and material which are those costs not entirely consumed by one program.

c. Initiating expense and/or other non-recurring costs.

You have now begun your cost accounting. You have divided your entire LRC into activities that can be seen, understood and analyzed for cost purposes. It is at this point that the control element mentioned comes into play. "A budget is a *gross* plan in the sense that it summarizes many detailed estimates and decisions about a variety of future actions and events."[8] In order to make "estimates and decisions about a variety of future actions," we must, of course, be able to see the interrelationship to those future actions in light of the goal that those actions are designed to achieve. And in order to study this interrelationship of these future plans and make a decision on implementation or modification of the plans, the cost figures of each Program Financial Plan must join other similar figures from other programs.

Jenkins' model reflects a Program Financial Plan of three years. However, five years has customarily been used as a time frame for financial planning in PPB and with each succeeding year the plan is revised and another year added so that financial planning encompasses five years forward. Figures for this Program Financial Plan would be given in hours of work for Personnel, the number of titles of books, periodicals, filmstrips, etc., and *not* in dollar figures.

Program Financial Plan
No. 4AAA

Date____________________

Subject: Service to the disadvantaged in the inner-city area.

Recurring Costs:	First Year	Second Year	Third Year
Direct:			
Personnel:	Hrs.$	Hrs.$	Hrs.$
a. Professional Supervisor			
b. Library Assistant, Black			
c. Library Assistant, Spanish			
d. Clerk			
Library Materials:			
a. Books			
b. Periodicals			
c. Audio-Visual			
Utilities:			
a. Telephone			
b. Electricity			
c. Water			
Miscellaneous:			
a. Vehicle Maintenance			
b. Travel			
c. Supplies			
d. Insurance			
Shared Costs:			
Personnel:			
a. Extension Supervisor			
b. Delivery Service Driver			
c. Other			
Total Recurring Costs:			

(Cont. -)

Non-recurring Costs:	First Year	Second Year	Third Year
(To include initiating costs as well as capital improvements)			
Equipment:			
a. Library Trailer			
b. Filmstrip Projectors			
c. 16mm Projector			
d. Screen			
e. Van-Type Vehicle			
f. Generator			
g. Amplification Equipment			
Library Materials:			
a. Books			
b. Filmstrips			
Total Non-recurring Costs:			

V. Carry the totals for each identifiable cost within each sub-program to its appropriate ADMINISTRATIVE sub-program. The figures you would give in the Program Financial Plan No. 4AAA are then transferred to an appropriate sub-program with the basic function of "Administration." The actual money value for the hours worked by personnel, the number of titles of books, periodicals, etc. are then shown. It is here that these figures will join other figures from all other activities or sub-programs to give an overall view or plan of an entire activitiy for the budget period. Below is Jenkins' layout of this phase of the budget plan:

Program Financial Plan
No. 6-1-AAA

Subject: The Administration of Extension Service

Recurring Costs:	First Year	Second Year	Third Year	Fourth Year
Direct:				
Personnel:				
a. Salaries				
b. Social Security				
c. Retirement				
d. Hospitalization				
e. Unemployment Compensation				

(Cont. -)

	First Year	Second Year	Third Year	Fourth Year
Library Materials:				
a. Books				
b. Periodicals				
c. Audio-Visual				
Utilities:				
a. Telephone				
b. Electricity				
c. Water				
Miscellaneous:				
a. Vehicle Maintenance				
b. Travel				
c. Supplies				
d. Insurance				
Total Recurring Costs:				
Non-recurring Costs:				
Equipment:				
a. All weather book return boxes				
b. Library Trailer				
c. Filmstrip Projectors				
d. 16mm Projector				
e. Screen				
f. Van-type Vehicle				
g. Generator				
h. Amplification Equipment				
i. Shelving				
Library Materials:				
a. Books				
b. Filmstrips				
Total Non-recurring Costs:				

VI. Carry the totals for each identifiable cost within each sub-program to a line budget. The process of gathering together the costs for all the activities within a function is known in accounting terms as "the assembly and analysis of various estimates that in turn are designed to give an overall plan of the entire activity for the budget period." Thus, having selected an ultimate objective, having identified all the basic functions and having delineated all the activities that make up each of the functions, you then summarize the entire LRC operation in terms of dollars and cents. This final summary is called the annual line budget.

Annual Line Budget
Library XYZ

Recurring Costs: Figures

Personnel:

a. Salaries
b. Social Security
c. Retirement
d. Hospitalization
e. Unemployment Compensation

Library Materials:

a. Books
b. Periodicals
c. Audio-Visual
d. Microfilm

Building and Grounds:

a. Electricity
b. Fuel
c. Gas and Water
d. Elevator Inspection
e. Insurance
f. Building Security
g. Building Supplies

Miscellaneous:

a. Bookmobile and Delivery Service
b. Treasurer's Fee
c. Travel
d. Membership Fee

Equipment and Supplies:

a. Library Supplies
b. Postage

Total Recurring Costs:

Non-recurring Costs:

a. Library Equipment
b. Library Materials

Total Non-recurring Costs:

Remarks:

All the items in the annual line budget are drawn from program financial plans similar to the example shown on page 24 of this model.

Although it is not shown in this example, the annual line budget must offer an overview of the cost to operate four, five, or more years into the future. This is accomplished by simply requiring that all sub-functions or sub-programs include such anticipated costs in their projections.

VII. Total all line items on the expense side of the budget and compare with the total line items on the income side. If the balance is not satisfactory or if for any reason dissatisfaction is expressed about the expenditures, return to the appropriate sub-program or sub-programs to reexamine the questioned expenditure in the light of its value as a contribution to the success of the sub-program.

VIII. Set up a methodology for evaluating the effectivenees of each sub-program as that sub-program relates to the ultimate goal.

PPB as we see it in this model involves three disciplined ways of looking at things: decision-making, accounting, and now evaluation. Each of these has its own specialists. The manager is not a specialist in either accounting of evaluation, yet he has to identify the objectives, set up alternative ways of carrying out the objectives, consider the relative values of each of the ways and then establish budgetary control through use of accounting procedures.

This final step with which Jenkins has chosen to end his model is very important in PPB for a major element in the system is the requirement for identification of future implications of current program decisions, especially as they affect the ultimate outcome of the total program.

Program evaluation is to be an ongoing, repetitive operation, a continual monitoring process done on programs year after year. Because of the continuing nature, it places a much greater emphasis on collection of basic data concerning program impact and cost. One of the crucial tasks of evaluation is the development of measures of effectiveness to be used. These can be set in a hierarchical order containing at one end concrete measures of administrative effectiveness of specific programs, mainly of use for short-term administrative control. An example of these would be the number or proportion of the target group reached by the program. At the other end, will be the measures of the actual benefits of the program, generally in terms of changes in the overall status of the community with respect to certain important attributes. What we want is that the measurement at this high level have a normative value; i.e., if the particular measure changes in the "right" direction while other things remain equal, then we can agree that the condition of our community has improved. David Siedman[9] illustrates the possible hierarchical concepts which can be used as a specific set of measures as the following:

Level 1 - Project administration measures (example already given).

Level 2 - Sampling survey questions. These are asked of persons in the target area of the program or in a more general area of the city. They are intended to determine what impact the planning program is having in a community in terms of knowledge, attitudes, and practice. The survey seeks changes in the precentage knowing of the specific program, approving it, practicing some of its teachings and similar questions.

Level 3 - Basic output measures. It is assumed here that the desired basic objective of a Service to the disadvantaged in the inner-city area program is reaching these people, providing library and information service, as well as education and recreation. Therefore, basic output measures would include the total number of library cards issued (or the total number of patrons coming to the trailer library), number of materials circulated, etc.

Level 4 - Measure of benefits. This corresponds to the level of social indicators. This could include such things as changes in the literacy rates, knowledge of consumer information aiding families to buy more carefully, and even increased family income due to effect on educational level. These measures are much harder to make, so that it is usually the lower level measures that are used more to evaluate programs.

Of course, there are more complex evaluation procedures that may be used to evaluate the effectiveness of programs. These, however, involve the use of statistical analysis and would require the development of mathematical models which could best be done by evaluation experts. Suffice it to say that the evaluation procedures selected for particular situations, no matter what they may be, should be done continually throughout the program and changed accordingly as the program is modified.

We hope that this model has given a clearer view of PPBS as it can be applied to the management of libraries. To briefly summarize the process, we will use Willard Fazar's more expanded definition of PPBS:

> "PPBS is a mechanism for making hard choices, a means for deciding among competing claims for always limited resources; a system for establishing priorities, setting policies, and for describing numerically, difficult problems and the impact of alternate decisions for their solutions.
>
> It is an integrated system to improve the information base for policy, program and resource allocation decisions.
>
> It is a unifying and comparing process for higher level review and analysis of program alternatives. It provides through narrative and numerical expression, an explicit determination of the relative efficiency and economy of

allocating limited resources to alternate plans for achieving concrete objectives. It is a means for revealing the long-range consequences (in terms of estimated costs and benefits) of annual or short-range decisions and actions on plans, programs, and resource allocations. It provides the basis for effective evaluation and integrated control of ongoing programs."[10]

Footnotes

[1] Sul H. Lee, *Planning-Programming-Budgeting System (PPBS)*, Library Management Series, No. 1 (Ann Arbor, Michigan: Pierian Press, 1973), p. 30.

[2] *Ibid.*

[3] Thomas R. Buchman,"Planning-Programming-Budgeting System in University, National, and Large Public Libraries in the United States," *Libri* 22 (1972): 256.

[4] Dean Tudor, "The Special Library Budget," *Special Libraries* 63 (November 1971): 518.

[5] Sul H. Lee, *Planning-Programming-Budgeting System (PPBS)*, p. 31-47.

[6] David Y. Sellers, "Basic Planning and Budgeting Concepts for Special Libraries," *Special Libraries* 64(February 1973): 72.

[7] *Ibid.*

[8] E.L. Grant and L.F. Bell, *Basic Accounting and Cost Accounting*. (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1964), p. 466.

[9] Fremont J. Lyden and Ernest G. Miller, eds. *Planning Programming Budgeting, A Systems Approach to Management*. 2nd ed. (Chicago: Markham Publishing Co., 1972), p. 330-31.

[10] Willard Fazar, "Program Planning and Budgeting Theory," *Special Libraries* 60 (September 1969): 423-424.

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Administrative Organization

Yvany Basso Eckley

The administrative organization of a community college learning resources center is determined by many variables. Several of these may be readily identified: the administrative posture of the college; the managerial style of its director; the composition of the LRC collection; the attitudes and commitment of administration, faculty and students; the environments in which the LRC finds itself: political, economic, social; etc.

The approach to this aspect of the Handbook will hopefully be quite practical. First, we will assume that a new community college has just opened. That a new LRC is included and you, the reader, have been hired to be its first director. In assuming the directorship, you are concerned with the LRC's administrative organization and responsible for implementing an administrative organizational plan. The intent in this portion of the paper is the consideration of elements which need to be identified in formulating such an organizational plan.

A Critical Appraisal of LRC's Environments

This appraisal may take several forms: surveys, personal interviews, review of pertinent college publications (faculty handbooks, college catalogs), pertinent local documents, input from other librarians in area, etc. Answers to the following questions will be needed in formulating the organizational plan for the LRC:

1. What attitudes, commitments exist in relation to the library's role in the college community? Administration's viewpoints? Faculty viewpoints? Student viewpoints?

2. What are the objectives and goals of the community college of which the Learning Resources Center (LRC) is a part? Are the objectives both general and specific?

3. What are the components of the college curriculum? College parallel and transfer? Vocational/technical and terminal? General studies and continuing education?

4. What is the nature of the external environment in which the community college (and its LRC) will function: large urban situation or a small town rural environment, or neither; is the institution singularly administered or part of a multi-unit junior college district; are politics (internal or external) instrumental in affecting decisions?

5. What is the composition of the student population: Upper, middle, or lower class? What is its ethnic make-up? Is it a commuter or resident student body?

6. What is the college's enrollment? What has been the student population trend in the past 5 years? What are the student population projections?

7. What are the sources of funding for the Learning Resources Center? Private or Public? If public, what are the approximate percentages of support for the college from local, state, federal sources? From tuition? Gifts and endowments?

8. What kinds of materials (print and non-print) relevant to collection building will most adequately respond to the educational and informational needs of the students, faculty, and community having ascertained available financial resources?

9. Having considered materials, what will be the LRC personnel needs to effectively and efficiently administer said collection? Will financial resources available adequately permit the procurement of these personnel?

10. What physical facilities are available as regards the Learning Resources Center? Are buildings and facilities planned to adapt to changes easily? How will architectural plans prohibit or enhance the operations of the library? Is the LRC located in one building or in two or more? Are the print and non-print material departments separate or united? Is a computer available? Is it administratively independent?

Decision Making and Establishing an Organizational Design

Having surveyed and studied the points mentioned above, the director of the Learning Resources Center reaches a point where he must now make decisions, based on the findings. The director thus formulates and established an "organization design." Organization design refers to the process by which a structure of tasks and authority is created. Structure refers to relatively fixed relationships that exist among jobs in the organization. He must consider the fact that the establishment of a "chain of command," a heirarchical authority structure needs to be developed. This chain of command requires that the director of the LRC be something of a "Renaissance Man/Woman":

1. The director should have adequate authority to manage the internal operations of the LRC and administer the services needed.
2. The director should be able to initiate and maintain concerted action toward the desired goals.
3. He should be capable of delegating both authority and responsibility to others.
4. He should keep channels of communication open.
5. He should encourage and provide adequate training for the staff as a life-long learning process for purposes of self-improvement, upgrading, promotion, which in turn results in improvement of services rendered.
6. He should see that the work environment and personal relationships motivate individuals at all levels to better performance.
7. He should be constantly aware of what is going on throughout the LRC.
8. The director should make certain that each individual is aware of his responsibilities, duties, and rights.
9. The director should....after having established goals.... evaluate and measure results to determine if the desired standards are being met.
10. If results are not having desired effects, the director should attempt to ascertain why they are not, and take corrective action, or suggest alternative means of arriving

at desired objectives.

11. The director should be flexible enough to re-evaluate objectives if they are too idealistic.

12. The director's leadership abilities will effect significantly the desired outcomes. Innovation and futuristically-oriented in his thought processes seem most appropriate when discussing leadership.

Personnel and Policy Considerations

What criteria or considerations will be used in procuring and assigning personnel to LRC positions? The director faces the responsibility of finding the right person for the right job. This apparently simple statement is not as simple as one might think. Highly qualified and desirable personnel normally are expensive. If one is fortunate enough not to be hampered by financial limitations, what other considerations, relative to employment of personnel, are entailed? Such considerations might include:

1. Existence and need for job descriptions
2. Existence and need for position classification
3. Written policies and procedures affecting the position
4. Existence of Administrative Staff Manual
5. Selection, placement and recruitment policies

And in securing the "right person," have the followingitems been defined and enumerated?

1. Qualifications required for the specific job
2. Whether experience is necessary....required
3. What type of background is desirable
4. What personality traits or characteristics are essential for the performance of the job
5. And many more considerations too numerous to mention

In discussing personnel and policy formulation, inherent and implied in this discussion is the ever present aspect of authority. Authority is delegated to a particular position based on the particular level of that job in the organization; the responsibilities commensurate with the position; and the heirarchical structure evident in the organization. One may view the line of authority in two ways: vertically and horizontally. In any organization one usually witnesses an ever-decreasing amount of authority and responsibility as one moves from the top to the bottom of the organizational structure. The statement above represents the truly "vertical" chain of command structure. However, the relationships evident in an organization employing participative management, display somewhat of a "horizontal" line of authority and responsibility. Communication, cooperation, and shared responsibilities are essential in linking together all the members into a "team relationship." Each person is essential to the section as well as to the institution as a whole. If a section or department does not function well, it endangers the outcomes of the entire organization.

Evaluation and Re-Evaluation

As has already been implied in this paper, evaluation and re-evaluation are essential to the success of any Learning Resources Center. We must determine if the objectives selected are being accomplished. If they are not, we must ascertain causes for failure: salary, collection shortcomings, personnel problems, working conditions, inadequate management, need for further training,should the objectives be modified to satisfy constantly changing needs of students, faculty, community, and changes in curricular programs, etc. These points will be covered in depth in other sections of this Handbook and therefore are only enumerated here for the reader's consideration.

This portion of the paper has simply outlined areas for consideration and deliberation if you the reader are faced with establishing an administrative organizational structure in a new community college learning resources center where one did not previously exist. I shall conclude this segment of the paper with a brief discussion of areas of consideration and action guidelines should one be assigned to a Learning Resources Center where organizational structure is already established and the center is in full operation.

The Administrative Organization of an Established and Operational Learning Resources Center

All the elements mentioned earlier in this paper could be used, with some degree of modification, to evaluate the entire Learning Resources Center program(s) already in existence. In addition to these, the "Guidelines for Two-Year College Learning Resources Programs" formulated jointly by ALA/AACJC/AECT could prove most useful as an aid for assessing LRC activities. I would specifically recommend the following statements found therein:

1. Written statements should be available defining clearly the responsibilities of the LRC administrator, heads of Learning Resources units, staff and students.
2. The Learning Resources Center professional staff should be involved in all areas and levels of academic planning.
3. LRC advisory committees should be comprised of representatives of the various academic divisions of the college (both junior and senior members), by students, and professional LRC staff.
4. The LRC chief administrator is responsible for the administration of the LRC. He should possess the authority to delegate responsibilities to others down the administrative line.

5. The internal administration of a Learning Resources Center is a participatory process in which staff are able to contribute to policies, procedures, and decision-making processes.

6. Formulating the budget as well as maintenance of statistics and proper records are responsibilities of the LRC chief administrator.

7. Director is responsible for centralized administration of learning resources and services.

8. Multi-campus districts require cooperative efforts, exchange of resources and technical services.

Samples of LRC Organizational Charts

The following section contains organizational charts of two Learning Resources Centers as they relate to the entire organizational structure of the institutions of which each is a part. A narrative description accompanies each chart solely for the purpose of defining and more precisely identifying relationships which charts in themselves do not present. The two institutions selected are those to which Institute field trips were made. Quite appropriately, one structure represents a single junior college whereas the other represents a "multi-unit district approach" with the LRC being part of a Junior College District organizational plan.

College of DuPage, Glen Ellyn, Ill.

The College of DuPage Learning Resources Center is divided into five areas:

1. Materials Utilization
2. Materials Production
3. Materials Distribution and Technical Processes
4. Developmental Learning Laboratory
5. Individualized Learning Laboratory

Each of these five areas has a Director who reports directly to the

Dean of Learning Resources Center, who is responsible for the overall coordination of the Learning Resources program and who in turn is responsible directly to the President. Other members of the staff report to their Supervisors or Directors.

The Administrative Organizational Chart on page 38 shows that the College of DuPage Learning Resources Center takes into account the areas of special services and materials.

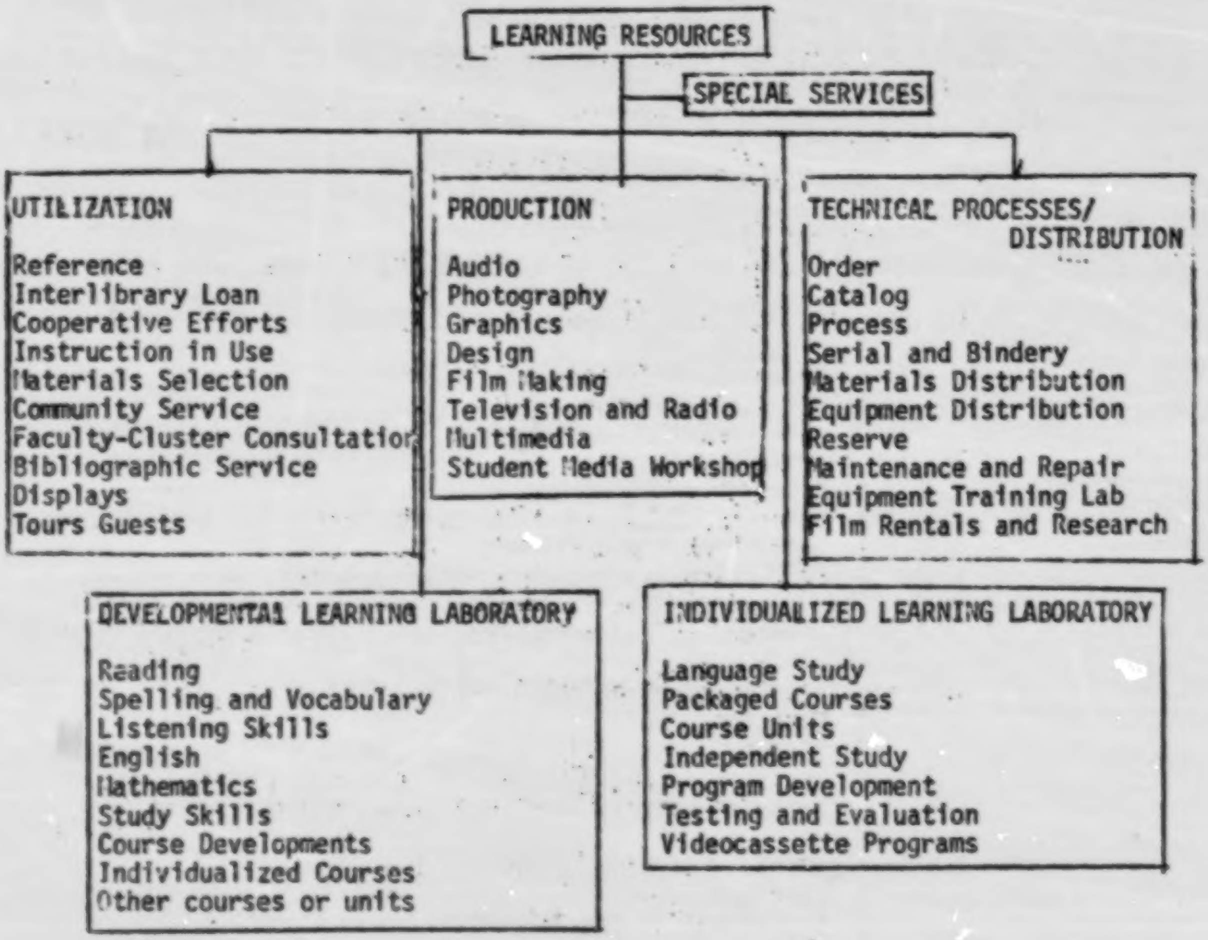
The number of employees for each department varies. That is:

1. Material Utilization has:
   - 1 Director
   - 4 Materials Reference Consultants
   - 1 Materials Reference Assistant
2. Material Production has:
   - 1 Director
   - 3 Materials Production Constultants
   - 1 Media Workshop Assistant
   - 7 Production Assistants: Media Workshop, Graphics Production, General Production, Photography Production, Recording and Sound Production, Television
3. Materials Distribution and Technical Processes has:
   - 1 Director
   - 7 Clerks
   - 5 Assistants: Film Order and Research, Circulation, Audio-Visual, Equipment, Cataloging, Acquisition
4. Developmental Learning Laboratory has:
   - 1 Director
   - 3 Consultants: English, Mathematics, Reading
   - 1 Laboratory Assistant
   - 3 Teacher Aides
5. Individualized Learning Laboratory has:
   - 1 Director
   - 3 Consultants
   - 2 Laboratory Assistants
   - 3 Teacher Aides

The College of DuPage Learning Resource Center has, among many other advantages, the unique one of having the Dean of the Learning Resources

Center report directly to the President. Needless to say, such an arrangement brings many benefits to the Learning Resources Center.

College of DuPage Administrative Organization Process


LEARNING RESOURCES
SPECIAL SERVICES
UTILIZATION
Reference
Interlibrary Loan
Cooperative Efforts
Instruction in Use
Materials Selection
Community Service
Faculty-Cluster Consultation
Bibliographic Service
Displays
Tours Guests
PRODUCTION
Audio
Photography
Graphics
Design
Film Making
Television and Radio
Multimedia
Student Media Workshop
TECHNICAL PROCESSES/ DISTRIBUTION
Order
Catalog
Process
Serial and Bindery
Materials Distribution
Equipment Distribution
Reserve
Maintenance and Repair
Equipment Training Lab
Film Rentals and Research
DEVELOPMENTAL LEARNING LABORATORY
Reading
Spelling and Vocabulary
Listening Skills
English
Mathematics
Study Skills
Course Developments
Individualized Courses
Other courses or units
INDIVIDUALIZED LEARNING LABORATORY
Language Study
Packaged Courses
Course Units
Independent Study
Program Development
Testing and Evaluation
Videocassette Programs

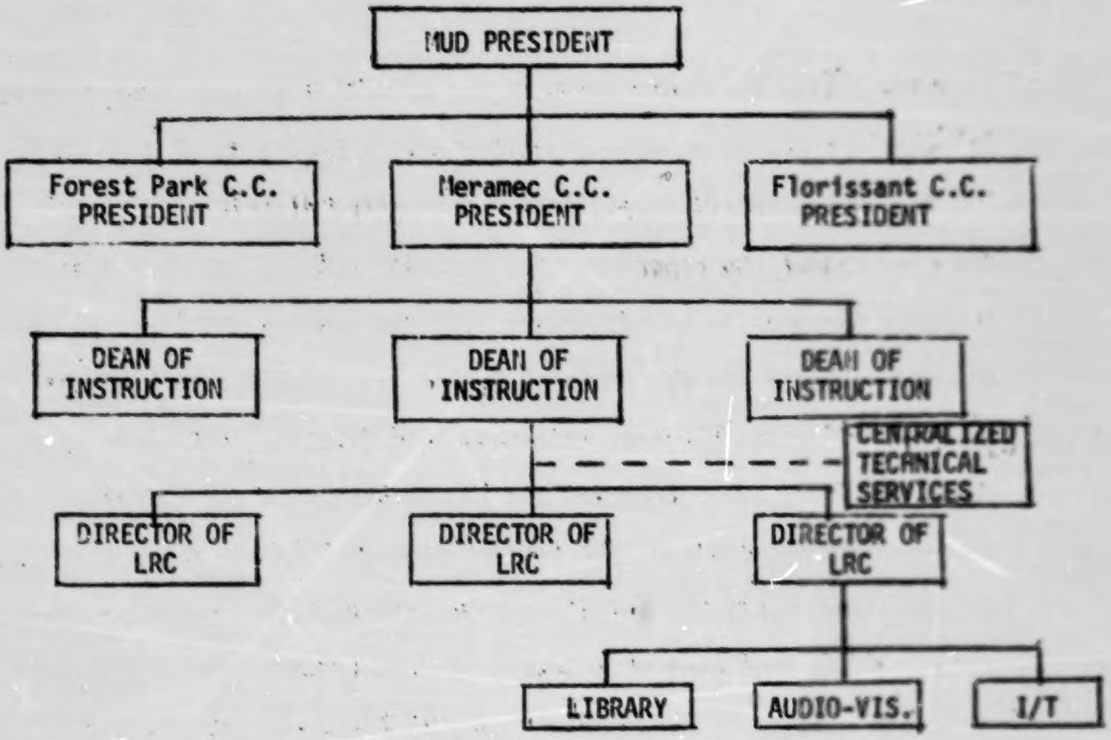
Forest Park, Meramec, and Florissant Valley Community Colleges
St. Louis, Mo.

Forest Park, Meramec, and Florissant Valley Community Colleges are connected ay a multi-unit district (MUD) arrangement. Each campus is a separate entity in itself and each has a similar administrative structure. Policies are not dictated by the District. A President of the MUD is the top administrative position for the entire district. Each college has a President who reports to the President of the MUD, but who is somewhat independent in matters relative to his own institution. In descending order are the Deans of Instruction, one for each Community College. They meet if they have things to discuss about their campuses. Below the Deans of Instruction are the Directors of the Learning Resources Centers. As one can see, the line of authority in the three institutions is much more detailed than in the College of DuPage. An issue presented to the President of MUD must have passed through the channels of authority outlined: Director of Learning Resources Center, Dean of Instruction, President of the College, and finally to the multi-unit district President.

What appears to be a very advantageous facet of the MUD organization is a Centralized Processing Unit which serves each community college mentioned above in acquisition, cataloging, processing, distribution, maintenance and repair, etc.

Each Learning Resources Center receives a percentage of the MUD financial budget according to the number of students enrolled and various other factors.

Among other things, the success of this entire multi-unit district in St. Louis depends on the excellence of the coordination among the three community colleges.


MJD PRESIDENT
Forest Park C.C. PRESIDENT
Meramec C.C. PRESIDENT
Florissant C.C. PRESIDENT
DEAN OF INSTRUCTION
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CENTRALIZED TECHNICAL SERVICES
DIRECTOR OF LRC
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LRC PERSONNEL DIRECTIVES

Classification of Positions

Isidro Chavez

Introduction

For any organization to successfully reach its goals, or attain established objectives, it must institute a plan. This plan's strategy assumes the assigning of responsibility to the various levels of the organization. Each level has a particular function, that when accomplished andcollectively grouped with the accomplishments of other units, meets the pre-established objectives of the organization.

This section of the Handbook relates to personnel planning. In this section the following areas will be discussed: a) Classification of Positions; b) Job Descriptions; and c) Personnel Appointments.

The segment which immediately follows, addresses itself to the subject of "Classification of Positions," An attempt has been made to respond to pertinent questions onemight ask relevant to this area. The form of this segment is nesessarily general in nature because modifications will be necessary for situations unique to each institution.

WHAT IS MEANT BY "CLASSIFICATION OF POSITIONS?"

It is "a grouping of positionsinto classes based on the similarity of: 1. the nature and difficulty of work performed; 2. the amount and level of responsibility involved; and 3. the experience and training required for the proper performance of the duties of the position."[1]

HOW DOES ONE GO ABOUT ESTABLISHING A POSITION CLASSIFICATION PLAN?

The steps in establishing or revising a position classification plan are:

1. A job analysis is conducted in which a detailed description of the job is produced.
2. Prepare a job description from the work detailed in the job analysis.
3. "Prepare a job specification which adds the education and experience required to perform the work described."[2]
4. Perform a study of the jobs and group them into classes.
5. "Prepare class specifications including (a) title, (b) definition or general description of work performed by the class, (c) examples of typical duties and, (d) minimum qualifications."[3]

WHAT IS THE PURPOSE OF A POSITION CLASSIFICATION PLAN?

Classification of positions provides:

1. The primary basis for a salary schedule which sets the specific amount of pay for each class with minimum-maximum rates and intermediate steps;
2. For promotion within the class so that talents and skills can be utilized to the fullest;
3. A built-in flexibility to the constantly changing personnel organization structure through reclassification;
4. A means to evaluate it through the quantitative system of factor comparison, a method which includes such factors as "education, skill, initiative, responsibility, job conditions, physical and mental effort, and experience."[4]

WHAT CLASSIFICATION SCHEMES CAN BE USED?

Most libraries have a hierarchical system of classification titles that denote level of responsibility. Although some preciseness is sacrificed in the use of broad class titles, it is essential in the greater flexability of assignment. For some examples of classification schemes currently in use, please refer to the end of this section.

WHAT OTHER CONSIDERATIONS SHOULD BE REVIEWED?

1. Position classification should, if possible, be conducted by library personnel to ensure that the grouping of positions is accurate and meaningful.
2. Adequate staff and clear cut policy will help make and keep a distinction between professional and non-professional duties.[5]
3. Periodic analysis of salaries relative to the classes and the jobs within the classes cannot be overstressed.
4. "Consulting firms, other libraries, personnel agencies, and Position Classification and Salary Administration in Libraries are available to assist in the installation or review of a classification plan."[6]
5. Promotions into supervisory/administrative levels are sometimes regarded as a waste of talent and skill in a specialized service or activity. Consider in-class advancement as the alternative.

Classification Scheme Examples[7]

"EXAMPLE A

STUDENT ASSISTANT - a class for hourly (casual) employees
LIBRARY CLERK - a class of positions requiring basic clerical skills
LIBRARY ASSISTANT - a class of nonprofessional positions requiring special linguistic, subject, or technical competence
LIBRARY INTERN - a class of preprofessional positions for persons with at least baccalaureate degrees who are preparing for careers in librarianship
LIBRARIAN I - for beginning librarians with postgraduate library degrees and other persons of established professional caliber
LIBRARIAN II - for experienced librarians and those in junior supervisory positions
LIBRARIAN III - for senior supervisors and experienced librarians with considerable responsibility
LIBRARIAN IV - for senior officers"

"EXAMPLE B

Clerical Group A	Page Bindery Processor Duplicating Machine Operator
Clerical Group B	Desk Attendnat Clerk (prefix department of function) Clerk-Typist Secretary A Secretary B
Technical Group	Typist Key Punch Operator Proofreader Binding Technician Binder Photographic Technician Driver
Bibliographical Group	Library Assistant Searcher (General) Bibliographic Assistant (General) Bibliographic Assistant (Special) Indexer
Administrative Group	Supervisor Administrative Assistant
Intern	Library Trainee
Librarian I-V"	

"EXAMPLE C

Bindery Clerk
Bookmender
Technical Processing Assistant
Technical Processing Specialist
Subject Specialist
Shelver
Portal Monitor
Circulation Assistant
Library Services Assistant
Library Specialist
Senior Library Specialist
Group Supervisor
Department Services Supervisor
Copy Machine Operator
Senior Copy Machine Operator

Messenger
Typist-Clerk
Receptionist-Typist
Typist
Mail Clerk
Senior Clerk
Building Superintendent
Senior Storekeeper
Secretary
Executive Secretary
Library Intern
Librarian I
Librarian II
Librarian III
Librarian IV"

Footnotes

[1] Roberta Bowler, ed., *Local Public Library Administration*, (Chicago: The International City Managers Association, 1964): 152.

[2] *Ibid*.

[3] *Ibid*.

[4] Leon C. Meggenson, *Personnel: A Behavioral Approach to Administration*, (Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1972): 412-413.

[5] Bowler, p. 154.

[6] *Ibid*.

[7] Rutherford D. Rogers, et.al., *University Library Administration*, (New York: H.W. Wilson Co., 1971): 38-39.

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Job Descriptions

Maxine Strawder

Introduction

The importance of considering libraries as organizations and the important elements within the library such as materials, space, environment, personnel as they would be regarded in an organization cannot be overemphasized. The following inquiry into the area of job descriptions as it relates to the library as an organization yields astounding revelations as to the paucity of literature on job descriptions in the business literature itself. Nowhere is this point brought home more clearly than when in the course of searching for current articles on job descriptions the writer noted five citations and discovered that four of the five were the same article with a variant title.

It seems appropriate in these introductory remarks to mention the important contribution to the area of job descriptions made by the American Management Association (AMA) through the research studies #33(1953)[1] and #65(1964)[2]. Both studies present materials based on samples of organizations in existance. They include actual job descriptions and other important data such as responses to specific questions by actual persons holding management positions. Their approach served as a reference point from which to review job descriptions obtained during an Institute field trip to the St. Louis Junior College District.

Definition

The reader is not to expect a clear cut concensus on what a job description is. Some organizations refer to it as position description. Others call the "as is" job situation the job description while the "as desired" situation is called a management guide. Some view it as descriptive, others as directive and still others as a kind of contract. There is generally agreement that the job description is in written form. The following definitions bear out the above statements.

> "The management guide is a delineation of the functions, responsibilites, authorities and principal relationships of a particular position in a business enterprise, or a series of such delineations of positions."[3]

> "....written descriptions of duties, responsibilities and job relationships."[4]

> "....some people consider the position description a written agreement between the manager and the person to whom responsibility and authority are delegated. When properly written, it gives an exact delineation of what the individual employee is to do and to whom he is accountable. Actually position descriptions form the basis for the organization's discipline."[5]

> "....job descriptions are written reports outlining the duties, responsibilities, and conditions attendant to the work assignment. They are descriptions of jobs, and not of the individuals who happen to hold those jobs. The title of the job, statements of its basic functions, scope, duties, responsibilities, organizational relationships, authority limits, and criteria for performance evaluation are all included."[6]

Of this list, the last definition seems to be one which can easily be applied to the learning resources center. Its inclusion of evaluation criteria is particularily relevant.

Purposes of Job Descriptions

> "Job descriptions are a focus of disagreement in management. The traditional line managers may regard them as irrelevant, the kind of typically theoretical, non-productive things staff men and consultants waste time over."[7]

According to Hawdon Hague[8], there are at least four situations which necessitate job descriptions:

1. Personnel selection. Broad statements, setting out tasks and the educational, experience, and background required.
2. Guidelines for work. Expecially important in Management by Objectives (MBO) where managers determine work goals.
3. Organizational analysis. Job descriptions are essential to organizational charts. They clarify relationships and responsibilities.
4. Defining training needs. By considering an employee's job description with an appraisal of present performance, remedial areas are pin-pointed.

Hague cautions that job descriptions be limited to one page, double spaced. In speaking to the purposes which job descriptions serve, he briefly recommends the following:[9]

1. Personnel selection - "consider which qualifications and experience, while being ideal, are not necessary." This to be done "by the manager to whom the new man will report - possibly working in conjunction with the personnel manager who will screen the initial applicants."
2. Guidelines for work - state clearly "the important aspects

upon which a man's performance will be judged."

3. Defining training needs - Should be written by a man's boss in conjunction with the training offices and should "analyze why performance falls short of goals."
4. Organizational analysis - "should be drawn by someone independent, either internal or external consultant."

Although the most recent article on job description, Hague's seems to lack the authority and clarity of the earlier articles.

Purpose and Change

The purpose for which the job description is written influences and is influenced by the status of the employees concerned. One reason for establishing job descriptions at the supervisory and managerial levels has been organizational analysis and improvement. For blue collar workers a greater emphasis has been job comparison for the purpose of setting wage rates. Similar considerations arise where professionals and para-professionals are employed.

The American Management Association paper #65 points to the job description as not only an analytical index of the organization but also as a force for change. For managerial positions the job descriptions are at first decriptions of the job exactly as performed. New procedures and reporting relationships can be arrived at by comparing the existing situation with what is deemed more desirable. Standard Oil Company of California has been reported to use two sets of job descriptions for each managerial job. One termed the "Management Guide," the other the "Job Description." The Guide is used for orientation and on the job training and "when appropriate, it is the primary vehicle by which the content and reporting relationships of the job are changed."[10] However, for salary administration purposes the job descriptions are used in the following manner:

> "....job descriptions within the Company are terse, factual, and designed primarily for job evaluation."[11]

According to one survey,[12] 183 companies were asked the uses to which they put job descriptions. The total of 708 answers indicated that the majority used them for more than one purpose. Of the 183 respondents, a total of 135 indicated that they write job descriptions to obtain data for wage and salary administration. Slightly more used them to clarify relationships and responsibilities, an item checked by 139 companies. The next largest group of responses relates to training and orientation.

> "....They are used to give the Manager of Supervision a better job understanding, to acquaint new employees with their job, and to discover training needs."[13]

While the job description program began for purposes of wage administration purposes,

> "....A number of survey respondents noted a change in the purpose of their programs. At first, the effort was mainly devoted in the usual way to describing jobs as they were actually performed. But, in the process of writing, organizational shortcomings inevitably showed up. Hence the final versions of the descriptions often pointed the way to more effective working arrangements."[14]

In considering the purposes of job descriptions, it would be well to keep in mind the purposes of the institution in which they will be used. Job descriptions for the community junior college would not only reflect the multi-levels of services to community, faculty and students but also support the democratic and inclusive philosophy inherent in an institution committed to life-long learning.

Five Stages to Job Descriptions

The summary which follows is from the 1967 publication by Berenson and Ruhnke entitled, Job Descriptions: How to Write and Use Them.[15]

Stage 1. Preparing for analysis of the job

Stage 2. Obtaining information
  a. Observation
  b. Interview
  c. Questionnaire
  d. Logs
  e. Combination of a.-d.

Stage 3. Collating Data

Stage 4. Review by affected personnel

Stage 5. Completing Job Descriptions

STAGE 1. PREPARING FOR ANALYSIS OF THE JOB. This stage concerns itself with selecting the job analyst for the organization to be studied. The choice of analyst should be one who is familiar with the jobs to be analyzed. The job analyst must be able to gain the repect of persons with whom the job description process is involved: the worker, immediate supervisory personnel, management and in some cases, unions. Lack of the ability to inspire confidence in the analyst will affect the quality of information solicited and the use to which it is put by the organization.

STAGE 2. OBTAINING INFORMATION. Care is to be exercised in the choice of information to be obtained. Consider the purposes to which the job description is to be used. Then the selection of any of the combinations of ways in which the desired information is to be gathered will be clearer. Means of acquiring the necessary information may take one, or a combination of the following forms.

OBSERVATION. Visual observation of workers at their tasks has the advantage of first-hand information and lessens the chance for omission of details. The observer notes working conditions, skills required, equipment used, the entire work environment. It affords the analyst the opportunity of clarifying unclear points and taking notes which might not be obtained from other means suggested. To be effective, the identity and purpose for observation should be made clear to those being observed. This would be a good time to inform them that they will have an opportunity to respond to the analyst's findings in the "review by affected personnel" (Stage 4). Stress that the job, not the person, is being described.

INTERVIEW. If this format is used it should include responses by the worker and supervisor. The analyst can verify information received prior to the interview, question contradictions, and probe deeper into areas that appear nebulous. Management at all levels should be informed of the aims and procedures in order to answer questions of subordinates. In order to be effective, the analyst must be able to put the respondents at ease and at the same time maintain objectivity. There is no room for personal biases. The skill of the interviewer and ability to deal with people will determine the cooperation and quality of the information.

QUESTIONNAIRE. This particular format, while a time saver, can rarely be the sole technique utilized. No matter how thorough a questionnaire, it will most likely not contain all the questions needed to acquire an accurate picture of the job. The possibility of misinterpreting a worker's answers is great and is only partly minimized by strictly structured questions. With the questionnaire method, no interchange between job analyst and the respondent occurs. A low cost method, it should be used in combination with other forms.

LOGS. This method is similar to the questionnaire format in that the worker supplies the data through one-way communication. It differs in that the log consists of a record kept by the worker of duties performed over a period of time. The job analyst supplies the log form for various tasks performed in sequence and in a given time span. Since employees tend to resist this method, it is not recommended as the sole method for obtaining information. While it may save time, employee resistance may negate its accuracy and utility.

COMBINATION. Observation and interview are listed as the best combination, most complete and accurate. It must be noted, however, that the situation will dictate the best combination. Care is to be exercised in any use of methods which take time away from the work itself. This engenders resentment which is difficult to overcome.

STAGE 3. COLLATING DATA. It is necessary to separate fact from opinion, to segregate the useful from the irrelevant. Where there is a conflict in the data obtained, the analyst determines the standard to be used. This standard is applied across the board without the opinions of the informants altering them. Using short, clear statements, the data is combinded under categories such as:

Basic functions

Scope
Duties
Responsibilities
Organizational relationships
Authority limits
Criteria for performance evaluation.

STAGE 4. REVIEW BY AFFECTED PERSONNEL. In this particular stage, the analyst asks for corrections and suggestions to his findings. This procedure catches the analyst's omissions and facilitiates acceptance of the job descriptions. It is not assumed, however, that the job analyst is bound to accept all corrections and suggestions received.

STAGE 5. THE JOB ANALYST CONSULTS WITH HIS/HER SUPERIOR FOR APPROVAL THUS CATCHING FINAL OMISSIONS AND DETAILS. Copies of the "job description" are distributed to department heads and the original goes to the personnel department.

Approaching job descriptions from this point of view places a great deal of responsibility on the job analyst and his/her ability to obtain information from people. The entire approach is likened to hiring an attorney. Either you trust the job analyst or you procure another. This is however a suggested model and like all models can be modified to meet the needs and the prevailing conditions of the institution involved.

A Sampling of Job Descriptions in the Community College

While there are too few articles in library literature on job descriptions and their use in library management, the Institute field trip to the St. Louis Junior College District yielded a sample of firsthand information. These following examples are not intended to be criticisms of the District but are used as a learning tool for prospective Learning Resources Center workers who, it is hoped, will benefit from this exploration.

It will prove useful to review four job descriptions from the St. Louis District in light of the information by AMA, Hague and Berenson and Ruhnke. It is at best an attempt at fitting a design for a profit-oriented institution on a public service oriented institution. The job descriptions are for the following positions:

1. Instructional Resources Cataloger
2. Instructional Resources Technical Assistant II
3. Instructional Resources Technical Assistant I
4. Instructional Resources Assistant

Also included is a March 6, 1974 Memorandum which refers to initiating a DIR (District Instructional Resources) Operating Manual. This memorandum reflects the initial stages in the preparation of procedures manual for the District Centralized Processing Unit in the St. Louis District. A quarterly update of the manual is projected. It is interesting to note that item I of the manual is "Structure and Changing Procedure Manual." At the bottom edge of each Job Description is the statement, "This job description is not a complete statement of all duties and responsibilities which go with the job. It contains only the facts necessary to describe and clarify the job for selecting suitable applicants."

The outstanding feature of these job descriptions is the possibility for employee advancement. Beginning with one year full-time experience as IR Assistant at salary range 4, one may advance with two years experience and increased familiarity with the Instructional Resources to salary range 7. With a two-year degree or equivalent in experience, a Technical Assistant I can advance to Technical Assistant II and salary range 12 and some supervisory responsibility. With a bachelors degree in Library Science, the position of cataloger may be attained. It is indicated that a MLS is preferred.

What advantages accrue to the cataloger? Traditional cataloging duties, supervisory responsibilities for assistants and para-professional personnel, a salary range of 15 (not a mention of "Ability" under requirements but also no faculty or academic status). There is also no mention of the need to communicate and serve the public.

The descriptions that follow are stated in very general terms at their present state of evolvement. More specific reporting details may emerge in time. The progression in comprehensiveness of duties illustrates the need for more sophisticated job categories as in Technical Assistant I and II. Most important, however, is that there is a commitment to working on the task at all. The District effort could mean that there will be cross-fertilization of ideas and support from staff with like interests.

INSTRUCTIONAL RESOURCES

MEMORANDUM

TO:

FROM:

DATE: March 6, 1974

RE: Internal Procedures Manual

In accordance with your suggestions I would like to initiate the beginning of a DIR Operating Manual. I anticipate that the manual would be divided by various categories of responsibility in this department such as those listed below with the supervisors responsible for his or her area, providing the procedures.

The procedures manual would be set up in manual format with a numbering system similar to the Junior College District Book Catalog Design Notes.

The procedures manual could be changed easily by the supervisor writing memorandums to staff members advising of the changes. Frequently, (every three months) a routine check would be done by at least one individual and at that time the procedures manual would be updated incorporating all of the changes from the memorandums.

I request your suggestions and additional responsibility areas for the procedures manual and a breakdown of those areas into smaller segments. This will act as a table of contents for establishing the manual. This manual will be used by DIR personnel only and could be referred to when attempting to explain internal procedures to outside personnel.

I Structure and Changing Procedure Manual
II Audio Production
III Film Circulation
    A. JCD
    B. Rental Films
    C. Accounting for costs
IV Business Services
    A. IOs and DIR Expense Credits
    B. Financial Management
    C. Purchase Orders, invoices and changes
    D. Receiving and Shipping
V Graphics
VI Photography
VII Library Administration

THE JUNIOR COLLEGE DISTRICT St. Louis-St. Louis County, Missouri	JOB DESCRIPTION

Job or Position Title: INSTRUCTIONAL RESOURCES CATALOGER JCD Job Code: ______

Starting Salary: - Range No.: 15 Step No.: 0 Major Classification: ☐ Academic ☐ Administrative ☒ Classified

Supervisory Responsibilities: ☒ Yes ☐ No

Date Issued: 1-21-74 Revises Job Description Dated: ______ Page: Of

NATURE OF WORK:	Under general administrative supervision, performs classification and cataloging of all print and non-print material.
DUTIES BY EXAMPLE:	Performs original cataloging and classifying of instructional materials. Utilizes Dewey Decimal Classification, Library of Congress Subject Headings, Anglo-American Cataloging Rules and other authorities as prescribed by Instructional Resources administration. Verifys accuracy and suitability of bibliographic information acquired from non-JCD cataloging sources. Compiles bibliographic information and formats it for main entry catalog card production and/or computerized machine readable data entry for automated union catalog system. Reviews and abstracts materials. Utilizes knowledge of the broad subject matter range pertaining to the 2 yr. community college curriculum. Assist para-professional personnel in technical services. Performs related duties as assigned.
REQUIREMENTS:	Education: Bachelor's degree in Library Science or related field required. Masters degree preferred. Experience: Four years experience in cataloging required. Masters degree may be substituted for some cataloging experience.

THIS JOB DESCRIPTION IS NOT A COMPLETE STATEMENT OF ALL DUTIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES WHICH GO WITH THE JOB. IT CONTAINS ONLY THE FACTS NECESSARY TO DESCRIBE AND CLARIFY THE JOB FOR SELECTING SUITABLE APPLICANTS.

THE JUNIOR COLLEGE DISTRICT St. Louis-St. Louis County, Missouri	JOB DESCRIPTION

Job or Position Title: INSTRUCTIONAL RESOURCES TECHNICAL ASSISTANT II

JCD Job Code:

Starting Salary: - Range No.: 12 Step No.: 0

Major Classification: ☐ Academic ☐ Administrative ☒ Classified

Supervisory Responsibilities: ☒ Yes ☐ No

Date Issued: 1-21-74

Revises Job Description Dated:

Page: Of

NATURE OF WORK: Under limited supervision, assists in services provided by Instructional Resources.

DUTIES BY EXAMPLE: Develops and maintains system for orderly circulation and/or acquisition of equipment and/or materials.

Performs searching and verifying in Instructional Resources records and bibliographic tools.

May perform descriptive cataloging, simplified original cataloging, and simplified reference service.

Schedules, supervises, and trains personnel/student assistants in performance of duties.

Assists in developing budget and initiates requests for supplies and material.

Maintains records and inventory in areas of responsibility.

Advises and/or works with students, faculty, and staff in the use of various reference resources available.

Compiles statistics regarding equipment and/or materials.

Maintains, ready for use, all resource material and equipment in area of responsibility.

Performs related duties assigned.

REQUIREMENTS:

Education: Associates degree in closely related field or equivalent training required.

Experience: Three years of full-time work experience in closely related field.

Ability: Need comprehensive knowledge of supplies,

(Cont.)

equipment, and materials used in Instructional Resources. Must have working knowledge of Instructional Resources procedures. Must be able to communicate, exhibit a positive service attitude, and work effectively with students, staff, and public.

THIS JOB DESCRIPTION IS NOT A COMPLETE STATEMENT OF ALL DUTIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES WHICH GO WITH THE JOB. IT CONTAINS ONLY THE FACTS NECESSARY TO DESCRIBE AND CLARIFY THE JOB FOR SELECTING SUITABLE APPLICANTS.

THE JUNIOR COLLEGE DISTRICT
St. Louis-St. Louis County,
Missouri

JOB DESCRIPTION

Job or Position Title: INSTRUCTIONAL RESOURCES TECHNICAL ASSISTANT I

JCD Job Code:

Starting Salary: - Range No.: 7 Step No.: 0

Major Classification: ☐ Academic ☐ Administrative ☒ Classified

Supervisory Responsibilties: ☐ Yes ☒ No

Date Issued: 1-21-74

Revises Job Description Dated:

Page: Of

NATURE OF WORK:	Under supervision, assists in Instructional Resources procedures.
DUTIES BY EXAMPLE:	Assists in maintaining system for orderly circulation and/or acquisition of equipment and/or materials. Performs routine searches in Instructional Resources records and bibliographic tools. Assists in updating and maintaining shelflists and holdings file. Assists in scheduling, supervision, and training of student assistants in performance of duties. Assists in maintaining records and inventory in areas of responsibility. May be responsible for preparation of purchase orders and multiple copy order forms and processing of materials.

(Cont.)

Assists in maintaining, ready for use, all resource material and equipment in area of responsibility.

Perform related duties as assigned.

REQUIREMENTS:	Education: High school graduate required. Experience: Two years of full-time experience in related field. Applicable formal training may be substituted for experience. May be required to type accurately. Ability: Some knowledge of supplies, equipment, and materials used in Instructional Resources. Must be able to communicate, exhibit a positive service attitude, and work effectively with students, faculty, staff, and public.

THIS JOB DESCRIPTION IS NOT A COMPLETE STATEMENT OF ALL DUTIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES WHICH GO WITH THE JOB. IT CONTAINS ONLY THE FACTS NECESSARY TO DESCRIBE AND CLARIFY THE JOB FOR SELECTING SUITABLE APPLICANTS.

THE JUNIOR COLLEGE DISTRICT
St. Louis-St. Louis County,
Missouri

JOB DESCRIPTION

Job or Position Title: INSTRUCTIONAL RESOURCES ASSISTANT
JCD Job Code: ____________

Starting Salary: - Range No. : 4 Step No. 0
Major Classification: ☐ Academic ☐ Administrative ☒ Classified

Supervisory Responsibilities: ☐ Yes ☒ No

Date Issued: 1-21-74
Revises Job Description Dated: ____________ page: Of

NATURE OF WORK:	Under direct supervision, performs Instructional Resources clerical/technical work as assigned.
DUTIES BY EXAMPLE:	Types letters, lists, records, and technical reports. Accurately types catalog cards and performs filing according to specific cataloging rules. Completes forms such as requisitions and vouchers using furnished information.

(Cont.)

Schedules Instructional Resources facilities.

May operate duplicating machines, adding machines, splice tapes, make transparencies.

Labels Instructional Resource materials.

May operate and maintain film inspection and/or cleaning equipment.

May enter edited catalog information into book catalog system.

Perform routine set ups of Instructional Resource equipment.

Operate various types of Instructional Resource equipment and systems.

Assist in scheduling and circulating audiovisual and television equipment.

May supervise student assistants.

Performs related duties as assigned.

REQUIREMENTS:

Education: High school graduate or equivalent.

Experience: One year full-time experience in related field.

Ability: Should be able to type accurately. Needs basic working knowledge of office machines Instructional Resources equipment and systems. Preferred: Knowledge of Instructional Resources procedures. Must be able to communicate, exhibit a positive service attitude, and work effectively with students, faculty, staff, and public.

THIS JOB DESCRIPTION IS NOT A COMPLETE STATEMENT OF ALL DUTIES AND RESPONSIBILITIES WHICH GO WITH THE JOB. IT CONTAINS ONLY THE FACTS NECESSARY TO DESCRIBE AND CLARIFY THE JOB FOR SELECTING SUITABLE APPLICANTS.

Conclusion

The community college library worker is encouraged to support use of job descriptions which are designed with the purposes of that institution in mind. The college administration should be petitioned to commit the entire organization to the creation and use of job descriptions.

The status-class-sexist orientation of business should not deter the library worker from utilizing and refining those tools of the business world which can further the purposes and goals of community college librarianship. Specifically, the view of the library as an organization, the use of job descriptions, planning-programming-budgeting-systems,management-by-objectives and other organizational concepts as they may apply, enhance and advance community college librarianship.

There need be no fear that job descriptions will lead to dehumanizing an institution. Combined with job specifications, their preparation can be very "people-oriented" and can for all involved, create a meaningful learning experience.

Footnotes

[1] C.L. Bennet,. *Defining the Manager's Job* (Research Study No. 33, New York: American Management Association, 1958).

[2] Gordon H. Evans, *Managerial Job Descriptions in Manufacturing* (Research Study No. 65. New York: American Management Association, 1964).

[3] Bennet, *op. cit*., p. 33.

[4] Evans, *op. cit*., p. 14.

[5] Joseph J. Famularo, *Organization Planning Manual* (New York: American Management Association, 1971.): 146.

[6] Conrad Berenson and Henry O. Ruhnke,"Job Descriptions: How to Use and Write Them," *Personnel Journal*, 1967, p. 1.

[7] Hawdon Hague, "Can a Job Description Serve Four Functions?", *International Management* (February 1973), Vol. 28., No. 2, p. 44.

[8] *Ibid*.

[9] *Ibid*., p. 48.

[10] Evans, *op. cit*., p. 18.

[11] *Ibid*.

[12] *Ibid*., p. 19.

[13] *Ibid*., p. 20.

[14] *Ibid*.

[15] Berenson and Ruhnke, *op. cit*., p. 1-9.

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Appointments

Recruitment

Joe Benson, Margaret Elliott, and Sheila Smith

Introduction

"Recruiting is the process of finding potential individuals for employment. Such people may be willing applicants or they may need to be induced to apply for certain positions in your firm."[1] Recruitment is the first phase in the employment procedure. The objective of recruiting new employees or LRC personnel is to attract applicants to the institution in order that their qualifications for present and anticipated vacancies can be reviewed through the screening procedure. Recruitment is described by Yoder as a positive managerial function in that candidates for employment are found and made available.

> "Selection, then, becomes the negative counterpart of recruitment. It serves the function of screening applicants made available by recruitment and choosing from this group those most likely to succeed. In practice, it is difficult to separate the recruitment and selection phases completely since some selectivity must be exercised in any recruiting activity."[2]

Thus, it is the purpose of this paper to describe approaches and methods of recruiting in order to help perform this function of management. "The basic requirement for a successful recruiting campaign is a thorough identification of needs."[3]

RECRUITMENT POLICY

There is a wide variation in recruiting policies. Many variations may be attributed to regional differences in recruitment patterns. The implications of recruitment policy have not received the same attention afforded policy on selection, training, or fringe benefits.

Promotion From Within

The most frequently expressed recruitment policy statement deals with filling vacancies through promotion of present employees. If this policy statement is given general circulation among employees, it may incorporate a statement of the role of seniority in making promotions. Seniority provisions and procedures to be followed in making promotions usually are included in the basic union contract in an organization whose employees are collectively organized. The exact form of the policy statement will differ from one organization to another. One statement might take the following form:

> "When a job vacancy occurs, it will be filled by selecting a qualified individual from: (1) present employees; (2) employees who have been laid off or who are on leave of absence; (3) former employees; and (4) new applicants."[4]

The policy of promotion from within is considered by many personnel managers to be a significant factor in maintaining high employee morale and contributing to worker satisfaction with job and company. Unfortunately it is easier to state such a policy than it is to carry it out.

> "In a small organization, worker characteristics and qualifications may be known to supervisors or department heads. In large organizations, if records are inadequate or systematic review procedures lacking, promising candidates may be overlooked. In such circumstances, seniority rather than ability may soon become the sole criterion. A premium on length of service rather than ability is one major objection to this policy."[5]

Critics of the "promotion from within" policy contend that failure to infuse new blood at higher levels produces an ultraconservative organization resistant to change, which will experience difficulty in adapting to new market or competitive conditions. A policy of promotion from within must state the job levels to which it applies. Further, issuance of the policy obligates the institution to provide means for carrying out the policy.

Recruitment Outside the Institution

Policy statements concerning outside recruiting fall into four categories: who is to be responsible for recruiting; sources and techniques to be used; kinds of jobs for which recruiting is to be done; and special limitations.

Responsibility for Recruiting Activities

Responsibility may not always be well defined by policy statement. Job descriptions of most industrial relations and personnel director positions, however, show the recruitment function as one of the job duties.

> "Day-to-day recruiting activities will be a part of most personnel director's work. In larger organizations they often delegate it to the employment manager. The question of responsibility for the function may not become serious unless the company undergoes a period of rapid expansion or an increase in staff. The task of recruiting a large number of people may become so big as to require the addition of staff members assigned full time to recruitment in the field. In these circumstances, recruitment and screening activities are sometimes combined. The use of teams is probably most frequent in college recruiting. Whether recruiting is done by teams or by individual recruiters, the responsibility for coordinating recruiting activities must be clearly established. Unless this is done, recruiters representing several departments of a single organization may find themselves competing for the services of a single outstanding candidate."

Although formal responsibility for all recruiting may be vested in the personnel director, it is not uncommon to find considerable variations in carrying out this responsibility, depending on the department concerned and the level of the job for which applicants are sought.

Employee Referrals: Prime Tool for Recruiting Workers

Studies indicate that the reasoning behind the belief that employee referrals tend to be of especially good quality is that employees usually do a good job of prescreening - that employees have a great deal of information about both the firm and the potential applicant, and are therefore in a better position than others to match jobs and workers. Several employers pointed out that,

> "Employees don't refer people who won't be good employees, because to do so is a reflection on themselves. In addition, the friends of employees know more about the company in advance and are almost pre-sold on it if they decide to apply. Thus, the employer wastes less time interviewing peoeple who will turn down his offer, as well as those he will find unacceptable. Of a minority of personnel managers who contended that referrals were not of the highest quality, two were with firms that had problems with cliques and, sensibly enough, avoided employees' recommendations for this reason."[7]

One of these personnel managers emphasized his difficulty in avoiding the hiring of employees' friends and relatives; he reported that many applicants insisted they knew no one who worked at his firm, but, once hired and in, were greeted by a chorus of "hello there, Jane," from a half-dozen workers. The table following shows the attrition rates for workers recruited through employee referrals, want ads, and private employment agencies by two companies. The findings that the discharge rate was lower for workers hired through private employment agencies than for those obtained from want ads would indicate that the agency referrals were of higher quality, and that inference ties in with their higher cost. The attrition rate was lowest for employee referrals, but this finding must be interpreted cautiously. At first glance the lower rate suggests a better matching of workers and jobs, but the departure rate was about the same for all groups. The lower discharge rate for employee referrals seems to imply that this channel provided the employers with the highest-quality workers. However, these data are based on hires, not applicants, and presumably the companies sought workers of equal quality from each source. The low discharge rate among those hired through employee referrals could be accounted for in either of two ways: (1) the referring employees were better at judging quality than were the company interviewers, and screened out some people that the interviewers would have hired; or (2) the supervisors were favoring people referred by employees.

Attrition of Clerical Workers by Recruitment Source[8]

Months after hire	Per cent remaining		
	Employee referrals	Want ads	Agencies
	Company I		
	(N=63)	(N=81)	
1	75%	60%	
2	63	48	
3	47	33	
6	36	24	
9	28	17	
12	25	12	
18	20	8	
24	16	8	

(con't.)

Months after hire	Per cent remaining		
	Employee referrals	Want ads	Agencies
	Company II		
	(N=13)	(N=33)	(N=68)
1	100%	80%	82%
2	92	67	73
3	92	52	62
6	72	35	52
9	72	32	41
12	72	26	38
18	38	17	22
24	16	6	11

The findings reported here suggest that management in general might profit from analyzing the quality of their workforce by recruitment source.

PLANNING FOR RECRUITMENT

Before undertaking a recruiting program it is necessary to know the kinds of jobs to be filled. Essential qualifications for effective performance on the job must be known as well as how many of each kind of job are to be filled. Obtaining this kind of information involves making job analyses with resulting job specifications, and preparing forecasts of manpower requirements. Although the recruiter may never handle any of this work personally, it is important that he be familiar with the results. To a large degree they determine the nature of his recruiting efforts.

Job Analysis

"Essentially, job analysis is a systematic procedure for securing and reporting information defining a specific job."[9]

"Position and job are sometimes confused in use. A position

> is a group of tasks performed by one person. There are always as many positions as there are workers in a plant or office....A job is a group of similar positions in a single plant, business establishment, educational institution or other organization. The information which is used to define a specific job in summary form is referred to as a job description. The portion of the summary that gives necessary employee qualifications is known as the job specification. Information obtained from the job analysis can be put to many different uses, from the setting of pay rates to determining training methods. In recruitment, job analysis provides the information needed for determining what kinds of jobs are to be filled, and the level of skill required of employees on these jobs."[10]

There are three principle methods of securing job information: job questionnaires may be sent to employees for completion; employees may be interviewed by the analyst and a questionnarie completed; or the job analyst may observe the employee at work and record the essential facts about the job. Following is an example of an employee questionnaire.

EMPLOYEE QUESTIONNAIRE[11]

Job Title	Payroll Position No.
Location	
(Building)	(Floor) (Office)
Department	Immediate Supervisor
Employee's Name	Title
	Date

I. Description of Your Duties:

II. Experience and Training

Note: In answering 1, 2 and 3 below, please do not give the extent of your own personal education, experience, etc., unless it agrees with your opinion of the necessary requirements of your job.

1. What is the minimum knowledge and ability that should be required of a person starting to perform the duties of your position?
2. What special training, if any, is required of a person starting to perform the duties of your position? (Stenography, Bookkeeping, Comptometer operation, etc.)
3. What previous experience should a person have to start to perform the duties of your position? Example: - The position of

(cont.)

Tabulating Machine Operator would normally require some experience as a key punch operator.

a. What kind of experience?
b. Where can it be obtained?

4. With the above education or educational equivalent, special training and past experience, what minimum additional knowledge or training would an employee have to acquire on the job?
5. List the machines or equipment you use in the performance of your duties and state the approximate percentage of time spent on each.

Machine or Equipment	% of Time

III. Responsibility:

1. What is the name and title of the person(s) who assign your work?

Name	Title

2. Where does your work come from?
(Example: - Receives X28 [Employee Expense Account Forms] from the various departments on the Chesapeake District through the Chief Clerk in the Auditor of Revenues Office)
3. Where does your completed work go?
To what extent is it verified, checked or reviewed? By whom?
4. Do you follow written or verbal instructions in the performance of your duties, such as, rules, regulations, standard practices, etc.? Please explain.
5. To what extent does your job require supervising others? Give names and titles of those supervised.
6. Are you required to make decisions without reference to higher authority? ____________ If so, state examples of decisions you might make.
7. Are you responsible for: (Please check)
   - Money ☐
   - Materials ☐
   - Checks ☐
   - Records ☐
   - Methods ☐
   - Equipment ☐
   - Safety of others ☐
8. Contacts with others
   a. Does your position require contacts with: Employees in your department?__________; other departments?__________; Customer?__________; General public?__________.
   b. Are these contacts by phone?__________, correspondence? __________, personal?__________.
   c. What per cent of time do they require? Phone__________% correspondence__________%, personal__________%.
   d. What is the purpose of these contacts?
9. Effect of Errors
   a. Would errors or mistakes in the performance of your duties cause: (1) loss of time on the part of other employees in your department?__________; (2) other departments? __________; (3) Financial loss to the company?__________; (4) Embarrassment to superiors?__________; or (5) Embarrassment to the company?__________.
   b. If "yes" is the answer to any of the questions (1), (2), (3), (4), or (5) above, please explain fully how such an error

(cont.)

could occur, the extent of lost time, the possible financial loss or the degree of embarrassment.

c. Considering the amount of checking, reviewing, or verifying your work receives by others, what are the chances of such errors or mistakes occurring?

IV. Job Conditions

1. Does your job require any unusual physical effort such as lifting, pulling, pushing, standing for long periods, walking, climbing, etc?
2. What hazards, if any, are involved in the performance of your duties?

V. Add any other information or requirement that you believe would be helpful in describing your particular job.

____
Employee's Signature

Comment by Supervisor:

____
Supervisor's Signature

Employees may be interviewed by the analyst and information recorded on a standardized report form. A questionnaire similar to the questionnaire sent to employees can be completed under guidance of the analyst. This is a feasible procedure where a single position is to be studied. This method is often used when a supervisor must outline the proposed duties of a new position to be added to the work force. Observation of jobs by a trained analyst, from a technical standpoint, is the most satisfactory of the three methods. Although personal preference and local circumstances have led to many variations in observational procedure, the basic approach is still that developed and publicized by the War Manpower Commission:

> "This method of job analysis establishes four categories of informaton: 'what the worker does'; how he does it'; 'why he does it'; and 'the skill involved in the doing.'

> The first three categories are used in defining nature and scope of the work. The fourth category measures the level of difficulty of the work and serves to define the nature of skills required in order to indicate their difficulty."[12]

RECRUITMENT - THE FUNDAMENTALS

An important part of recruitment is the interview process. Bates lists several rules which,

> "represent a reasonable consensus about what constitutes good interviewing practice:
>
> 1. Prepare an interview sheet based on a systematic series of points to be covered in the interview.
> 2. Make notes on this sheet as the interview is in progress.
> 3. Record facts rather than impressions.
> 4. Keep questions simple and open-ended, and ask 'why' questions in addition to 'what' questions.
> 5. Avoid unnecessary comment or opinion.
> 6. Keep to a logical pattern.
> 7. A few minutes should be taken after each interview to summarize the main findings under the categories 'strengths' and 'weaknesses.'
> 8. Timetables should be adhered to as far as possible."[13]

Six characteristic that are hidden behind an outer appearance are:

> "1. Positive attitudes: ability to think and act.
> 2. Motivation: Is he self-motivated?
> 3. Stability: means that he will work until the job is done.
> 4. Maturity: Does he have self control?
> 5. Intelligence: Does he have the right aptitude?
> 6. Temperament: Does he have the social skills, competitiveness?"[14]

"Along with these fundamentals, an interviewer must make every attempt to qualitatively and quantitatively assess the position for which he is recruiting prior to the actual search."[15]

> "These fundamentals can only be assessed when the job has been described sufficiently to enable the applicant to decide whether he can perform it successfully and whether he would be satisfied in doing that kind of job. The

> notification must be based on careful job analysis and realistic job description."[16]

The following is a list of mistakes made which hamper effective recruiting efforts. Though the author, James Baer, lists them as "do's" for successful failure, they are listed here under "don'ts." Baer suggests that they be studied carefully, for they are time-tested, in use by countless organizations, and will generally result in a tarnished company image, loss of top talent, and unnecessary grief.

> Don't:
> "1. Pass the buck rather liberally, after all if you go on record as strongly favoring one candidate over another, you might be embarassed.
> 2. Sidestep any specific questions about such details as company objectives or how you expect to measure success.
> 3. Always be sure to avoid giving the candidate any written literature. Annual reports will tend to confuse him.
> 4. Once you have lined up your man, leave many of the details in a nebulous condition."[17]

FORECASTING MANPOWER REQUIREMENTS

Although the principle task of recruiting has been referred to as the day-to-day filling of requisitions for manpower, it should not be inferred that efficiency is achieved by a hand-to-mouth type of operation. Greatest effectiveness is achieved when replacement requirements are anticipated in advance and planned steps taken to fill those requirements on schedule.

Forecasting of requirements can be accomplished more readily in large well-established organizations than in small firms or new enterprises. A company with long experience and a large working force has a larger fund of data available upon which to base predictions than the small or new firm. At the same time, failure to utilize these data and plan ahead may sometimes be even more disrupting to a large organization than one in which the number of replacements required over a period of time is small. But the principles are the same for organizations of all sizes. Orderly replacement will be accomplished only through careful and realistic forecasting of needs through intelligent planning for filling future requirements from within the organization or from external sources.

Careful forecasting of requirements is most frequently found in programs of larger companies. These programs are primarily concerned with development of personnel for key positions and replacement of key personnel from outside sources when in-plant supply is inadequate. Many methods are used to determine annual recruiting needs, but the following classifications include the majority:

"1. Annual estimate of vacancies
2. Long-range estimate
3. Fixed minimum requirements
4. Specific positions."[18]

Centralized employment screening refers to the channeling of all applicants through a central employment office usually under the control and direction of the personnel department. Referral of promising candidates to employing departments is made by the employment manager or interviewer. Decentralized hiring infers that the supervisor or department head is responsible for the work of an employee and has final authority to hire a candidate referred by the employment office. Relative to the types of employment is the technique of recruitment.

RECRUITMENT TECHNIQUE

As mentioned earlier, the types of techniques to be employed in recruiting depend on the types of jobs available. In periods of rapid expansion you may have many vacancies at many different levels. Techniques needed for effective recruiting may therefore be many and varied. An entirely different direction of recruiting effort may be required in periods of relatively normal operation or during times of reduction of force. Also to be taken into account is the budget from which you are operating.

In many industries, bulletin board notices of jobs above the entry level are required by agreement, or the employees covered may bid on the job. Vacancies created down the line by successful bidders leaving level rank-and-file jobs are filled from within by other successful bidders. Under these circumstances, major outside recruiting efforts are directed toward filling entry jobs and hard-to-fill clerical, professional, and technical positions. Listed below are types of office workers whose jobs are considered most difficult to fill:

TYPES OF OFFICE WORKERS CONSIDERED MOST DIFFICULT TO HIRE[19]

Type of Worker	No. of Companies Mentioning	Reasons	No. of Companies Mentioning
1. Stenographer	108	Inexperience	44
		Lack of applicants	43
		Lack of shorthand	8
		Disinterest	8
		Location of plant	2
		Hours	1
		Poor spelling	1
2. Secretary	97	Lack of applicants	50
		Inexperience	32
		Salary requirements	6
		Lack of training opportunities in area	2

(cont.)

Type of Worker	No. of Companies Mentioning	Reasons	No. of Companies Mentioning
3. Clerk	52	Lack of applicants	19
		Disinterest	7
		Salary requirements	6
		Inexperience	5
		Spelling	1
4. Typist	44	Lack of applicants	18
		Salary requirements	5
		Disinterest	2
		Hours	1
5. IBM operator	18	Lack of applicants	6
		Inexperience	6
		Salary requirements	1
6. Technician	18	Inexperience	7
		Lack of applicants	5
		Disinterest	2
		Salary requirements	1
7. Comptometer operator	12	Others rate above scale	1
		Inexperience	1
		Lack of applicants	1
		Salary requirements	1
8. Key punch operator	10	Lack of applicants	5
		Inexperience	2
		Disinterest	2
		Salary requirements	1

For a description of techniques and sources used in recruiting hourly and salaried employees, the Office Executives Association's publication, Recruitment, Selection, and Indoctrination of Female Employees, contains valuable information regarding personnel recruitment. One will find particularly interesting their "Methods, Media, and Sources" of recruiting hourly vs. salaried employees and what avenues proved most successful.

A large-scale study in New York indicated that the best recruiting sources, in order, were: (1) commercial employment agencies;

(2) referrals by company employees; (3) "blind" newspaper advertising; (4) non-profit employment agencies; and (5) schools and colleges.[20] Another study indicates that their most satisfactory source of applicants is from newspaper advertisements, closely followed by employment agencies:

Sources of Applicants Found Most Productive[21]

	First Choice	Second Choice	Third Choice
Newspaper advertisements	96	53	37
Employment agencies	87	72	43
Schools	43	59	48
Employee referrals	35	73	91
Other referrals	5	11	33
Unsolicited applications	48	41	56
Miscellaneous	2	4	2

College recruiting and use of radio and trade journal advertising is done more frequently by large firms that can bear the cost more easily than medium or small firms.

Organizations

A further source for potential employee recruitment may be found in membership and participation in local, civic, and fraternal organizations; or professional societies. Such participation is a means of building community rapport. The public relations aspect of such a membership is obvious, at the same time broadening community and professional contacts which opens opportunities for obtaining additional leads for recruitment or employees. Organizational needs for special types of employees are continuously made to organizations such as the Urban League, Junior Chamber of Commerce, N.A.A.C.P., Boy's Club, Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A., etc. These organizations in turn act as informal referral sources to employers and generally insure the qualifications of such applicants. In general, the location and development of sources for new employees of the LRC remains the application of creative planning and good publicity.

Other Sources for Acquiring Personnel

It is apparent that applicants for many positions will not be found among employees within an LRC nor from candidates that are recommended. Jobs that fulfill entry level functions require recruitment from external sources. Such sources might include unsolicited personal or mail applications. These are usually applications that are filed by individuals who walk in or write seeking employment without knowledge of position availability. Whether the applicant is offered employment or not, he maintains a favorable or unfavorable impression of the LRC as a result of such contact. An applicant that is discouraged from applying or interviewing for a job discourages other individuals from applying and generally results in poor public relations for the LRC.

Radio, magazines, trade journals, and technical and professional journals are one of the most frequent methods of recruiting. Factors to be taken into consideration are: (1) choice of media (previously mentioned); (2) placement and timing of the ad; and (3) the appeal to the reader.

What Appeals to Use

Emphasizing the need for selling recruitment advertising, and discussing factors to stress in ads, de la Ossa says:

> "Getting new workers is a sales job nowadays. Ads should have an honest sales slant. High pay rates aren't enough to get or keep workers; they're interested in all the 'extras' - liberal vacations, bonuses, cafeterias that supply low-cost meals, so forth. All the advantageous features of working for a particular company should be stressed."[22]

The content of ads and the nature of appeals should be varied according to the type of worker sought. For example, special appeals when women are sought have been found more effective than the standard stereotyped ad.

Timing the Ad

In most cities the Sunday paper is best. It usually covers a larger readership over a broader geographical area than regular dailies. For magazines, the best time is usually around Christmas to January. In radio and TV advertising, spot announcements calling for workers were used frequently during both World War II and the Korean War. It may be thought that this type of advertising is too costly.

Evaluation

No matter what recruiting methods are used, or what sources of applicants are tapped, a sound long-range recruiting program cannot be developed effectively unless it is based on careful evaluation of recruitment and sources. A careful study must be done in order to learn which recruitment service or source of employees are most valuable - where the most satisfactory workers for each of various positions to be filled are being obtained, and what methods gave the best return for your recruiting dollar. The choice of sources and techniques is too frequently based on hunches, prejudices and immediate convenience. As [illegible] first step in evaluation it is wise to formulate the over-all objectives for the recruitment process. If variations in the recruitment process are allowed, these should be identified and recorded to insure consistency of action .

Summary

Recruitment is a continuing function. The day-to-day filling of personnel needs required by various departments and divisions is not an unusual task. The extent of recruitment necessary for the LRC and the techniques used are dependent upon many factors within the enterprise and in the community. It is the responsibility of those members of the personnel staff charged with carrying out the recruiting function to be sensitive to changes in the interal organization of the LRC which affect the type or operations, hence, the type of manpower required. In the community, while the condition of the local labor market is important, of greater significance is the standing of the library. It may be that in-service training may be used as a means of recruitment by offering a training program. Recruitment problems will be eased if the library has a reputation of being a good place to work.

> "The problem in recruitment then is to discover the sources of manpower to match the requirements of the staffing schedule in order to utilize effective means of attracting manpower in sufficient numbers to permit adequate selection of an efficient work force."[23]

Footnotes

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[2] Dale Yoder, Personnel Management and Industrial Relations, (New York: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1948), p. 151.

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[6] Ibid., p. 23.

[7] Joseph C. Ullman, "Employee Referrals Prime Tool for Recruiting Workers," Personnel Journal (May-June 1966): 32.

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[10] Ibid., p. 23.

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Appointments

Selection

The selection of a new employee is understandably one of the most crucial decisions one in authority makes. As Bruce Thomas, librarian of Antioch College, writes, "Mistakes made in the [selection] process are not comfortably corrected, may have a prolonged effect, and can trigger disruptive ramifications in other members of the group."[1] How well we as librarians have found this statement to be so very true. Therefore, let us look at the selection process and suggest some practical and hopefully "helpful hints" for improving our selection "batting average."

Mary Gallagher, in a publication entitled, Personnel Utilization in Libraries, suggests that in terms of trying to select the best qualified person, the following considerations might prove helpful:

> "1) Analyze the requirements of the job in terms of professional abilities required, managerial abilities required, goals and objectives of the organization, and personal attributes that you need in the individual;
> 2) Then match the qualifications of your candidate against the requirements of the job;
> 3) In recruiting candidates, consider the broadest area of recruiting and indicate when you would recruit only from WITHIN the organization, and when and to what extent you would go outside and bring someone into the organization for that particular position."[2]

These suggestions are geared to assisting the LRC director in acquiring the "best qualified candidate for the position." However, Charles D. Phillips, in the same publication, extends the "practicality" of Ms. Gallagher's suggestions by identifying for us at least a partial list of devices available to us in the selection process. They are presented here in brief outline form for your review:[3]

- I. Job or Man Specifications
  - A. Questionnaire
  - B. Job Analysis
  - C. Job Descriptions
- II. Performance Appraisal
  - A. Ratings
  - B. Potential Evaluations
- III. Biographical Data
  - A. Application Blank
  - B. Questionnaire
  - C. Skills Inventory
- IV. Tests Battery
  - A. Self-description - - -behavior
  - B. Mental abilities (verbal, abstract reasoning, quantitative reasoning)
  - C. Study of Values
  - D. Interest

In closely analyzing Mr. Phillips' article, one readily determines that the "job specification" is a critical element in the formulation of selection policy and procedure. He identifies for us additional factors which might be used in the selection process based on specification criteria, namely:[4]

1. Appearance

   How should the individual dress? Does the position require the employee to meet the public?
2. Behavior

   Does the position require a pleasant, outgoing personality? Is the individual constantly dealing with the public? Or does the position require routine activities, little public contact, concern for details?
3. Financial Abilities

   Does the position have influence over financial accounts or financial matters?
4. Health

   Does it necessitate a highly active, physically adept individual? Does the work environment (facilities) necessitate a certain degree of exertion (lifting, climbing numerous stairs, etc.)?
5. Mental Abilities

   Are any testing requirements or specialized skills required for the position? If so, what results will be expected?

6. Motivation
What amount of self-motivation is required if the individual is to be successful in the position?
7. Job Skills
What job skills or expertise must the individual bring with him to the job or acquire on the job if he is to succeed?

With criteria and due consideration to the suggestions offered above, we are ready to embark on the "mechanics" of the selection process. Library literature is sorely lacking in this particular area. In a large library the availability of an experienced and qualified personnel department is common practice; however, this Handbook speaks to the community college setting. Unfortunately, in such a setting, the head librarian or academic dean, or even the president, steps into a world where each lacks the training, knowledge, or personnel expertise required.

The selection process follows immediately "on the heels" of the recruitment activitiy of the library. The avenues for job listings (newspapers, journals in the discipline, graduate library school placement services, USES Convention Services, local state resources) have all been utilized. Application forms have been sent and received, vitas and letters of reference, and possibly personal contact with the applicant has been made and those not meeting basic requirements have been "weeded" from consideration. The stage is set for the selection process which is not only costly but time consuming.

Selection Interview

Undoubtedly, at least at present, the key element in the entire selection process is the interview. Robert Henderson suggests, most succinctly, that "interviews have a dual purpose: that of determining to what extent the applicant is fitted for the job and how the job fits the man."[5] Varied in type or style of approach, the selection interviewing process is normally conducted in one of several formats: Directed; Non-Directed; Stress; Situational or Problem-Solving, Group, Panel, or Board. In the library field, the "directed" and "panel or board" interview approach (with variations) seem the overwhelming preference. A brief description of each follows simply to familiarize the reader with their use in this paper:

> DIRECTED INTERVIEW - the directed interview, also referred to by such terms as "patterned," "guided," or "standardized" interview, is one which is planned and conducted according to an established pattern, highly organized, and carefully structured.
>
> GROUP or PANEL INTERVIEW - the group or panel interview, also referred to by such terms as: the leaderless group discussion technique; group oral performance test; or group interview appraisal test ....is similar in many respects to a round table discussion.

From a literature search in the area of the selection interview covering the period 1921-1973, the following suggestions are made (somewhat abbreviated in form) to aid one in the selection interview process:

A. Preparatory Stage (to be accomplished prior to actual interview)
    1. Interviewer must be thoroughly knowledgeable of the position for which he is interviewing.
    2. Interviewer should next familiarize himself with the applicant.
    3. Interviewer decides what areas of information are to be covered and in what approximate sequence.
    4. Interviewer makes initial contact and appointment.
    5. Interviewer should next take into account the interview environment.
    6. Forms or procedures for recording information obtained from interview should be prepared and available.

B. Conducting the Actual Interview

1. Introductions
    a. "The introduction should not only explain the purpose of the interview,[6] but stimulate interest and a sense of cooperation."
2. Securing Rapport
    a. This simply means "the establishment of such a relationship between the interviewer and the applicant as will enable a conversation that will yield the desired exchange of information....It not only is established, but maintained in part, simply by handling the applicant in a friendly way."[7]
3. Asking Questions
    a. The literature search suggests that questions should be addressed to the following areas:
        1) The applicant's work experience
        2) Applicant's education and training
        3) Applicant's personal history
        4) Applicant's physical fitness for the job
        5) Applicant's emotional stability and ability to fit in with the group with which he or she will be working
    b. For additional and very worthwhile information on the "art of questioning," the following references are suggested:
        1) Bellows, Roger M. *Employment Psychology: The Interview* (New York: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1954).
        2) Drake, Francis, ed. *Manual of Employment Interviewing* (Washington, D.C.: American Management Assoc., 1946).
        3) Henderson, Robert D. and Hoover, Dale W. "Interviewing Methods Used in the Selection of Salesmen," *Personnel Journal* 26(May 1947): 10.
        4) Symonds, Percival M. *Diagnosing Personality and Conduct*. (New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., 1931).
4. Observing and Listening
    a. Drake suggests, "listening provides an excellent opportunity for observation. The alert interviewer senses an applicant's readiness to speak and encourages him to do so.[8] Then he listens....attentively and analytically."
5. Recording and/or Notetaking
    a. If notes are to be taken during interview process, first obtain applicant's permission.
    b. Bruce V. Moore, in his article, "Personnel Interviewing," provides some very useful suggestions in this area by stating: "In making these records, it is important to distinguish three types of information: observation of facts, statements of the interviewee, and impressions and inferences from facts. When this record is reviewed by the interviewer, or by someone else later, it is important to distinguish between actual fact and what someone thought about

the person at an earlier time."[9]

6. Concluding/Terminating the Interview
   - a. In an article by Guy B. Arthur, Jr., in Management Review, specific points are enumerated which might be useful in concluding the interview.[10]
     1) Briefly summarize your conversation.
     2) Ask the candidate whether he has any further questions....if so, answer them.
     3) Promise to give the individual your decision at a definite time.
     4) Ask where he/she can be contacted and write it down.
     5) End on a friendly, cordial note.

Having addressed myself to the selection process, I would simply end on the statement found in the ALA Personnel and Organization Manual under selection, namely:

> "Selection of staff members is based solely upon merit, with due attention to educational and technical qualifications, as well as personality, native endowment, temperament, suitability, and aptitude for the position involved. Purely personal considerations do not enter into the selection of staff members, nor is there discrimination or favoritism because of race, creed, sex, marital status, opinions, beliefs, or political alignment."[11]

Footnotes

[1] Bruce Thomas, "Staffing the College Library," Library Journal (April 1, 1973): 1092.

[2] Mary Gallagher, "Policy Selection," in Personnel Utilization in Libraries; Selected Papers, by Ruth Rockwood. (Tallahassee, Fla.: School of Library Science, Florida State University, 1970), p. 29.

[3] Charles D. Phillips, "Selection Devices," in Personnel Utilization in Libraries; Selected Papers, by Ruth Rockwood. (Tallahassee, Fla.: School of Library Science, Florida State University, 1970), p. 36.

[4] Ibid., p. 41.

[5] Robert D. Henderson and Dale W. Hoover, "Interviewing Methods Used in the Selection of Salesmen," Personnel Journal 26(May 1947): 10.

[6] Jerome M. Rosow, "Interviewing as a Fact-Finding Technique," Personnel (Jan. 1951): 324.

[7] Roger M. Bellows, Employment Psychology: The Interview. (New York: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1954), p. 90.

[8] Francis Drake, ed. *Manual of Employment Interviewing*, (Washington, D.C.: American Management Association, 1946), p. 35.

[9] Bruce V. Moore, "Personnel Interviewing," in *Handbook of Applied Psychology*, edited by Douglas H. Fryer and Edwin R. Henry, (New York: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1950), p. 145.

[10] Guy B. Arthur, Jr., "Personnel: Interviewing Techniques," *Management Review* (May 1945): 171.

[11] *Personnel Organization and Procedure; A Manual Suggested for Use in College and University Libraries*. Prepared by Personnel Administration Section, LAD, 2nd ed. (Chicago: ALA, 1968), p. 11.

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Appointments

Placement

Placement of individuals following their selection should be a relatively simple procedure if LRC organizational structuring, job analysis, and job description planning have been efficiently accomplished. In the organizational realm, one is concerned with structuring a certain number of individuals into a coordinated, productive relationship. In the job analysis, we have hopefully answered such questions as:

> "---Is the job/position necessary?
> ---What are the duties?
> ---What portion of time does each task require?
> ---What skills, abilities are required?
> ---What credentials, experiences are required?
> ----What physical efforts are necessary?
> ---How does one move to the next level or responsibility?
> ---If the job/position does not allow for upward mobility, how is the employee rewarded for services?
> ---How does this position relate to others in the LRC? In the institution?"[1]

If these questions have been answered, the process of placement is much easier, not only for the LRC director, but for the new staff member as well.

Initial placement, however, requires a personal commitment on the part of the LRC director, the departmental or unit chief, and fellow staff members. A well-organized orientation plan is the key to the placement process. Such a plan might include the following items:

> "1) Create a friendly job atmosphere. Your initial goal is to make the professional or paraprofessional aware that you are pleased he has come to assist you in achieving an important objective and that you and his fellow [staff members] intend to give him every assistance possible in becoming a dependable member of [the LRC.]
>
> 2) Make sure he meets his fellow workers. These intro-

ductions should include external as well as internal [staff members.]

3) Conduct him on a tour of the institution, [the LRC,] and the department in which he or she will work.

4) Describe his job. Tell new team member what his job entails. (This particular point will be expanded and discussed further in the actual job orientation program.)

5) Give the new employee a preview of your training process.

6) Explain departmental rules and regulations and [LRC] policies and benefits.

7) Place the new[staff member] under the care of a training individual (if such a position exists) or a veteran employee in whom you have confidence.

8) Check on the training received and the new employee's progress systematically.

9) Don't let a kind heart stick you with the wrong kind of employee. The time to get rid of a new employee - by transfer, downgrading, or termination - is when the employee is new."[2]

We as administrators however face managerial responsibility for attempting to match professional and paraprofessional personal job needs with LRC organizational requirements. This task is an extremely complex one. Dale A. Seiler, in the November, 1970, issue of Personnel Journal, in an attempt to assess job needs, developed a questionnaire which he administered to 340 newly hired professionals, containing eight aspects or dimensions of job needs. The eight areas with associate explanations are listed below as a possible "guide" should one be considering a similar venture in the LRC.

"1) TECHNICAL CHALLENGE - the degree of importance to the professional that his job will be technically stimulating and the degree to which his job will require him to use his full capabilities. The notion of challenge also reflects the degree of importance which the professional attaches to functioning on a job that demands what he or she calls (real library work).

2) MANAGEMENT ASPIRATIONS - the degree of importance to the professional that the job will provide him or her with the opportunity to move into an administrative position. Included in this dimension is the personal importance of leading and supervising people.

3) SECURITY - the degree of importance the professional attaches to security and stability in his life and work.

4) JOB FREEDOM - the degree of importance the professional attaches to deciding how his job should be run, adopting his own approach to his job, assuming responsibility and selecting the projects on which he works.

5) PROFESSIONAL RECOGNITION - the degree of importance the professional attaches to gaining recognition from colleagues in his technical speciality, through technical and professional accomplishments. Implied in this dimension is a commitment to a specific professional discipline, not necessarily the (LRC) that employs him.

6) PROFESSIONAL ASPIRATIONS - the degree of importance to the professional that his job will provide him with the opportunity to rise to a higher professional position.

7) FEEDBACK FROM SUPERVISOR - the degree of importance the professional attaches to knowing what his supervisor expects from him and knowing how his supervisor perceives his job performance.

8) FINANCIAL ASPIRATIONS - the degree of importance the professional attaches to increasing his financial and social status."[3]

Having considered the personal job needs, the LRC director is faced with the very practical and time-consuming process of new employee orientation. Probably one of the most useful aids to the supervisor in performing this training function is a program formulated by the War Manpower Commission during World War II, called the J.I.T. (Job Instruction Training) program. In it, practical methods suggested as a guide for instructing a new man on a job, or a present worker on a new job or a new skill were:

> "FIRST, here's what you must do to GET READY to teach a job:
>
> 1) Decide what the learner must be taught in order to do the job efficiently, safely, economically, and intelligently.
> 2) Have the right tools, equipment, supplies and material ready.
> 3) Have the work place properly arranged, just as the worker will be expected to keep it.
>
> THEN, you should INSTRUCT the learner by the following FOUR BASIC STEPS:
>
> STEP 1.......Preparation (of the learner)
> - a) Put the learner at ease
> - b) Find out what he already knows about the job.
> - c) Get him interested and desirous of learning the job.
>
> STEP 2.......Presentation (of the operations and knowledge)
> - a) TELL, SHOW, ILLUSTRATE, and QUESTION in order to put over the new knowledge and operations.
> - b) Instruct slowly, clearly, completely and patiently, one point at a time.
> - c) Check, question, and repeat.
> - d) Make sure the learner really learns.
>
> STEP 3.......Performance Try-Out
> - a) Test learner by having him perform his job.
> - b) Ask questions beginning with WHY, HOW, WHO, WHEN or WHERE.
> - c) Observe performance, correct errors, and repeat instructions if necessary.
> - d) Continueuntil YOU KNOW HE KNOWS.
>
> STEP 4.......Follow-Up
> - a) Put him "on his own."
> - b) Check frequently to be sure he follows instructions.
> - c) Taper off extra supervision and close follow-up until he is qualified to work with normal supervision."[4]

The above training methodology seems most appropriate for the paraprofessional and clerical assistants in the LRC. Modifications and variations might be part of the initial orientation program for new professionals as regards policies and procedures. Such a program appears adaptable to the newer technology, i.e., videotape, and would if properly planned result in the long run with savings of time and energy on the part of the trainer.

If optimal criteria exist as regards orientation and placement procedures, it is the writer's opinion that William Mussman has most clearly identified them in the following manner:

> "1) They should create favorable impressions and attitudes toward the organization and work.
>
> 2) They should foster a sense of belonging.
>
> 3) They should facilitate learning and integration into the work group.
>
> 4) They should reduce adjustment problems involved in the awkwardness and ignorance of the new environment.
>
> 5) They should create a sense of security and confidence so that the training process can be facilitated."[5]

Footnotes

[1] Herman Elstein and Frederic R. Hartz, "The Role of Scientific Management in the Library/Media Center," Illinois Libraries (May 1974): 230.

[2] James Menzies Black, Developing Competent Subordinates (New York: American Management Assoc., 1961), p. 44-47.

[3] Dale A. Seiler, "Job Needs of the Newly Hired Professional," Personnel Journal 49(November 1970): 923-24.

[4] William B. Wolf, The Management of Personnel (Belmont, Calif.: Wadsworth Publishing Co., Inc., 1961), p. 133-34.

[5] Otis Lipstreu, "A Systems Approach to Orientation," Personnel Administration (March-April 1969): 42.

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SEPARATION FROM SERVICE

This particular section of the Handbook was not accomplished by any member of the Institute and therefore reference will only be made to topics which logically would be considered in this segment.

Retirement

Retirement policies will vary from institution to institution. Whether voluntary retirement at a specific age is permitted, whether a stipulated number of continuous years service, or whether staff members are automatically retired on attainment of a certain age....all these considerations will most likely be established in institutional policies and regulations.

Resignations

It would seem appropriate that resignations be submitted to the LRC director in writing, with sufficient "lead time" to afford an opportunity for the procurement of a replacement. "Lead time" may vary depending on local policy, from 30 to 60 days. There also understandably may be differences between resignation policies concerning professionals and those for paraprofessional or classified staff.

Dismissal, Suspension, and Termination

Perhaps of major importance to the LRC director or librarian is assistance in dealing with what for many is an unpleasant situation. Most helpful in this area is a recent article of American Libraries, simply entitled,"LAD Report: Developing Termination Policies and

Procedures." In this article, a simple outline is presented (and duplicated here) for the reader's consideration:

" The Termination Process

For resignations

1. Has employee presented a signed statement of resignation?
2. Has he given the prescribed amount of notice?

For Dismissals

1. Has employee received a written notice of his dismissal, including reasons for dismissal and date of his final duty?
2. Is this dismissal, the terms of notice and payment, and the procedures used, in accord with your library's personnel policies?
3. If this dismissal is for unsatisfactory performance:
   a. Has employee previously received formal, written unsatisfactory performance ratings or warning notice with an opportunity to imrpove his performance?
   b. Has employee filed a grievance regarding his unsatisfactory rating or warning?
   c. Has his grievance been heard in accordance with the library's grievance procedure?
   d. Has the employee been notified of the appeals procedure regarding dismissals?
   e. Has the appeals procedure been used by the employee?
4. If the employee is being dismissed not for unsatisfactory performance, but for cause (such as moral turpitude, insubordination, theft or other reasons not necessarily related to job performance) have you documentaion to prove or substantiate the charge or cause for dismissal?

For all terminations

1. Inform the employee's supervisor(s) and those whom he supervises.
2. Notify thepayroll department to drop the employee from future rolls, settle his account, and prepare his final check.
3. Cancel all employee benefits. If insurance or pension are involved, notify the employee of his status.
4. Instruct the employee to turn in all library property.
5. Rule on whether or not the employee is entitled to receive vacation or severance pay and notify the payroll department.
6. Update employment record.
7. Refund money deducted toward purchase of savings bond.

8. Release parking space.
9. Obtain keys to locker.
10. Remove employee's name from listings, telephone directories, etc.
11. Obtain employee's forwarding address."[1]

The following references are suggested sources for additional information on the subjects of this section. They are listed here for the individual LRC director's perusal and possible use in dealing with the topics of: Retirement, Dismissal, and Termination

Suggested Reading and Bibliographic Aids

American Library Association. "Draft Statement on Security of Employment in Libraries," American Libraries 4(December 1973): 678-9.

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DEVELOPMENT OF STAFF

In-Service Training

Implementing Program

Carolyn Yvonne McIntosh

Introduction

Historically, in-service training programs in libraries were concerned primarily with the education of non-professional employees (those without a masters' degree). Now, however, library schools are increasingly focusing on theory, and therefore in many instances it is almost mandatory for libraries to provide in-service training to their professional as well as the support staff. "The trend of library schools toward theory and away from practice has made on-the-job training for new professionals also a necessity."[1]

In-service training programs in the library are designed to provide orientation to new staff, training for staff already on the job to increase their efficiency, training for promotions, training for supervisory personnel, and to boost staff morale.

Planning In-Service Programs

It is of paramount importance that the program is well planned. Initially it is necessary to gather information about the needs of your particular library. According to Barbara Conroy, "The success of any program depends to a great extent on the soundness of the planning for the program."[2] In the planning of the program an effort should be made to include persons who will be participating, persons responsible for implementing the program, and the persons who will be affected by the program, as well as persons involved in its eventual evaluation.

It should be pointed out at this point, however,that at no time should in-service training be totally abandoned. The need for this type of training should be a continual process which should be used to broaden staff members' horizons.

Objectives Formulated

The objectives of the programs are an integral part of the planning process. They should be written, serving as a guide to the actual implementation of the program. Objectives should be reasonable, as concise as possible, and must be based on the needs of your particular library.

Resources Assessed

In considering the resources available, Barbara Conroy suggests there are three major areas of consideration: the resources available within the library, recognizing expertise within the organization, any programs that are already in existence within the institution of which you are a part, and the community resources available to you, including local programs, regional and national programs, and other libraries' staff development programs. Remember to keep in mind the financing of the program.

Activity Design

Activities should be outlined, allowing for flexibility. "Thoughtfully planned in-service schemes provide generously both time and opportunity for the exploration of in-service trainees special areas of interest...."[3]

In the planning process information needs must be gathered and analyzed, program objectives must be formulated, resources must be assessed, and a program of activities must be designed. The following steps should be taken into consideration in gathering information:

1. Assessment of needs (lookat the present situation to ascertain what your desired future needs will be).
2. Establish a basis for a program with regards to staff, the library's organization, and the community.
3. Assess personnel attitudes, and their desire for change. Also, look at the individual's performance level presently and the individual's future goals.
4. Combine means of gathering information using such tools as questionnaires, interviews, observations, and personnel previous evaluations.
   (See appendix 1 for an example of a questionnaire.)

By using the participative management concept in planning in-service programs for individuals who have been on the job for a period of time, there is less likely to be non-acceptance on the part of the staff that will be affected by the program.

Analysis of Information Needs

In this step of the planning process, especially where a program is being planned for individuals already on the job, it is determined whether there is actually a need for in-service training. In come instances the purchase of new equipment, policy changes, and shifting staff might correct a problem that might have been considered as a in-service training function.

In an article in Library Trends by the Guidelines Subcommittee, Personnel Administration Section, Library Administration Division, American Library Association:

> "The design of the program must be based on the nature of the adult as a learner.
>
> A. The adult is a self directed human being. As such, he is capable of controlling the learning process, of self-diagnosis of his own needs and of self evaluation of progress toward his goals. He must WANT to learn. An informal social and psychological learning climate is the best medium for encouraging the desire to learn and for the learning process itself.
>
> B. The adult has accumulated a reservoir of experience which is a unique resource for learning - for himself and for others. This enables him to gain progressive depth of meaning from each new learning experience and make the best use of a variety of learning methods and techniques.
>
> C. An adult's readiness to learn is oriented to the development stages he is in. He will learn what he feels the need to learn. This timing and relevance are important, a sense of progress is important and the grouping of learners must be appropriate for the kind of learning.
>
> D. An adult tends to be problem solving oriented to his learning experiences. The organizing principle for the design of learning experiences should be focused on problem area rather than subject, and emphasis should be on the practical application."[4]

The above mentioned points only reinforce the need to be sure to include staff members in on all phases of the planning process.

Implementation

Now it is time to put into operation all of the planning that you have done. Possibly one may consider one's own professional staff as in-service trainers;if you are in a large library, ideally they were included in your planning earlier. In a small library the in-service training responsibilities are usually assumed by the administrator. One should take into consideration the training skills of the individual you have selected to conduct your program.

At this point you should have acquired adequate materials, and made plans for the facility you are using. If you are using outside staff for your program, the selection of materials should be theirs.

Evaluation

The need to assess the performance of in-service trainees is important: first in their own individual interest, and in order to effect improvement in the staff's job performance. Russell Shank has pointed to the inadequate research on evaluating library in-service training programs.[5] (See example of evaluative questionnaire, appendix 2) Evaluation of in-service training programs will be discussed more extensively in the next section of this Handbook.

Conclusion

In summary, in-service training should be an on-going process. It should be much more than orientation of new staff or the attendance at professional meetings. Considering the constantly changing environment of the library and its role in modern society, it is essential that in-service training receive emphasis and administrative support and encouragement. The emphasis in the in-service training program requires the personal involvement of staff, personnel involved as trainers, community and students. Any in-service training program should have as its goals those established in the very early stage of planning by administration, trainers, and most importantly, those receiving the in-service training program.

Appendix 1

(Example of questionnaire given professional and supporting staff in the library, Columbia University, New York, in assessing need for in-service programs.)

1. Please identify areas in which some kind of training or education is needed, or would be useful in the performance of your job, in your personal advancement within the library system and for general improvement of the library.

2. What methods of training in these areas would you propose?

3. What other suggestions do you have for staff development?

Appendix 2

(Example of questionnaire used to evaluate in-service training programs at Columbia University libraries, New York.)

1. Did the topics covered give you an adequate over-all view of the Columbia University library system?

2. Are there other areas of the library system which you feel should be included? If so, please write your suggestions here.

3. Please comment on each of the sessions presented. Keeping in mind content and presentation of material (relevance of material, clarity, etc.).

4. Do you feel that the orientation should have been longer/shorter in duration?

5. Is the weekly meeting desirable or would you prefer some other format, e.g. every other week, twice a week, etc?

6. Please comment on your interest in touring departmental libraries.

7. General comments.

[1] Barbara Heafner and Elaine von Oesen, "Staff Development: Programs of In-Service Training in North Carolina," *North Carolina Libraries* 19(Spring 1961): 90.

[2] Barbara Conroy, *Staff Development and Continuing Education Programs for Library Personnel* (Boulder, Colorado: Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, 1974), p. 4.

[3] Susnaga Weeraperuma, *In-Service Training in Librarianship* (London: Poets' and Painters' Press, 1971), p. 12.

[4] Guidelines Subcommittee of the Staff Development Committee, American Library Association, "The Development of Human Resources in Libraries," *Library Trends* (July 1971): 110.

[5] Russell Shank, "Inservice training in libraries," *American Library Association Bulletin* 55(January 1, 1961).

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In-Service Training

Evaluating Program

Robert Martinez

Introduction

Barbara Conroy states in a recent publication entitled, Staff Development and Continuing Education; Programs for Library Personnel: Guidelines and Criteria:

> "Developing library manpower is a vital task that confronts the profession. Many professional efforts are directed toward building functional physical facilities, developing substantial collections, seeking stable funding sources and adapting modern technology to library functions. All of these efforts rely at some point on competent staff members providing needed services. The person is a key and irreplaceable element in librarianship."[1]

She continues:

> "Programs of staff development and continuing education which provide opportunities for library personnel to improve their skills, broaden their knowledge and change their attitudes offer great promise to supply that needed competent staff."[2]

She suggests that the impact this type of a program has on time, energy, and funds is substantial. But the organizational impact it has on the library, school or agency is equally substantial. Learning Resources Center effectiveness is greatly improved as are the capabilities of the individual staff members involved, when a clearly formulated staff development program exists.

She concludes by saying:

> "The results of such programs are substantial - well worth the investment. Whether the effect of the program is a positive or negative one cannot be fully controlled

> by those who develop the programs. The risk of a negative impact can be reduced if a program is carefully and realistically planned, implemented and evaluated."[3]

This paper is concerned only with the evaluation of staff development and continuing education programs for library personnel.

Evaluation is a tool which can be used to measure the effectiveness of a particular program. It can measure how the program has affected the individual, what type of outlook he has, how he has applied what he has learned, what effect this has had on the department in which he works, what effect it has had on the Learning Resources Center as a whole. It can also help to identify what the shortcomings of the program are, what people involved in the program feel was accomplished and how the program can be improved.

Following are some very general questions with brief statements taken from works on evaluation. These works are principally from the Business and Education fields.

Why does one evaluate?

We might wish to evaluate in order to have data which we can use to justify change in present procedures for planning or management. We might wish to supplement present programs. We might wish to evaluate for the purpose of strengthening our budget. Program evaluation can be put to a variety of uses. We are the ones to decide why we wish to evaluate, yet there are some guides we should use, and these are:

> "1) A reason for evaluating the program should be to determine how and to what extent the program is

meeting its objectives.

2) Program revision should come about as a result of evaluation. In other words, the feedback from evaluation can be used to improve the program.

3) In program evaluation those people most closely connected with the program should be allowed to have input into both the program and the evaluation. They should be allowed to express their own feelings. if they wish, as to what should go into the program and also what should be evaluated."[4]

How does one plan an evaluation program?

When first setting up the program you should attempt to visualize what your objectives are and secondly you should indicate what approach you will use to measure the effectiveness of the program.

Questions which will have to be answered to plan for evaluation are:

1) "What do we need to know? (in order to respond to the reasons for evaluating),

2) Who has the information? (and where is the information, when is the information produced?),

3) How do we obtain that information? (What procedure is necessary and possible?),

4) How do we want to use that information? (Who needs it to act upon it?)"[5]

Once the above questions have been answered, the plan for evaluation should be developed. In the plan you should indicate how and who will gather, analyze, and interpret the information - and when and where it is to be done.

The evaluation plan should then be made an integral part of the total program. Included in the plan should be information necessary for the formulation of the evaluation plan, with such items as time alloted, personnel to be used for the evaluation and the type of tests which will be used to gather the results.

What assumptions should we make to justify the need for evaluating programs and activities?

The effectiveness of the programs must be validated. We must objectively determine that the programs, when subjected to critical evaluation, demonstrate their value to the organization.

We must assume that any development program can be improved. Although the effectiveness of the program has been demonstrated there is always room for improvement because with time everything changes.

How can we effect improvement of a development program?

We can improve a development program by conducting an objective and coordinated evaluation of all aspects of the operation. The inclusion of the imaginative and creative thinking by all personnel with deliberate collection of their observations, ideas, and thinking and the critical analysis and synthesis of findings, ideas and alternatives is essential. Finally, the systematic, time-phased development and implementation of policies and procedures as well as the identification of resources needed to carry out plans are defined.

What principles should guide us in conducting an effective evaluation?

As Tracey states in evaluating training and development system:[6] An evaluation, in order to be effective, must be conducted in a way which is consistent with the purposes, objectives, and goals of the training activity. A principle one must consider as a guide in the evaluative efforts is that evaluation must be conducted in terms of purposes. In other words, the goals must be known. (1) Cooperative involvement is likewise essential to the success of the project. (2) All who are a part of the process of appraisal or who are affected by it must participate in the process. (3) Our evaluation must be a continuous process in order to establish a sound basis for an improvement program. This process must never stop although it may change to accomodate new emphasis. (4) Our evaluation must be specific. By being specific we can find out what is being done well, what might be done better, and how we can improve. (5) Finally, we must base our evaluation on uniform and objective methods and standards. Our standards and criteria must be acceptable, readily applied, and observable in the type of service we render or in the process we follow. Without standardization, evaluation will produce different findings and reach different conclusions because of the diversity of the people involved in the evaluation process.

How do we collect the evaluative information?

Evaluative information can be collected in different ways and by the use of different types of tools. The tool used would depend on the type of information you wish to obtain.

Some guiding factors in the collection of this information should be:

"1) The information you wish to obtain should have a use. In other words, you should collect information which

> you feel would help in improving either the program, the individual or the organization.
>
> 2) You should have the tools necessary to collect this information.
>
> 3) The process used to collect this information should be acceptable to all connected with the program."[7]

What steps should one follow in evaluation?

Evaluation is a problem solving process, therefore, one needs to follow certain steps.

> "First we must recognize the need for evaluation, then we must identify the areas to be evaluated. The selection of procedures and instruments to be used is made. Next evaluators are chosen and trained. The evaluators then collect and analyze the data and reach their conclusions, alternative courses are then identified and a decision is made on what course of action is to be taken and this course is subjected to trial. The results are then checked."[8]

What problems might we encounter in evaluation?

Besides the problems we might encounter from the complexity of designing and implementing a program, we might expect problems from other areas.

> "Using the same staff charged with the day-to-day operation of the program will impose an additional workload on people who already have full-time jobs. An alternative to this would be to employ an outside group of evaluators, but it could still cause other problems because the staff would feel that they are being observed and as non-participants the benefits of participating in the evaluation are lost. Another problem which will be encountered in evaluation is that due to the wide range of conditions and circumstances within which programs operate, there is no fixed scale for evaluation. Rigid standardization would be not only impractical but impossible. Resistance to evaluation by staff is another problem which might be encountered. The staff might feel threatened because they are being evaluated and will present passive and at times active resistance to any

evaluative efforts. Participation and communication are the factors which can be used to overcome this resistance."

What items must be present in order to conduct a successful evaluation?

Tracey suggests the following items:

> "[1] Above all we must have top level support if we are to even get off the ground. If we can count on this support we can be assured of having the resources necessary for our project. [2] The training manager must surround himself with a group of people capable of guiding various aspects of the project. These peoples' talents must be exploited fully so that the program can be a great success.
>
> [3] Total involvement of all personnel in the development activity is a must. If people have an opportunity to participate in evaluation they will have some feeling of controlling their destiny. Acceptance of the program will be facilitated and changes coming about because of the evaluation will be more readily accepted.
>
> [4] Efforts must be made to let people know what is planned, not only people involved in the program itself but also people who will be affected either directly or indirectly. This communication and coordination can be carried out by the use of conferences to discuss the evaluation and to indicate what procedures will be used in carrying it out.
>
> [5] The established organization must conduct the evaluation. The use of a separate organization will only create confusion and interfere with progress.
>
> [6] Each phase of the evaluation must have a realistic target date. Without the target date the evaluation might just drag on.
>
> [7] Evaluation personnel must meet regularly to compare notes and share ideas and thinking.
>
> [8] All studies must be complete, detailed, and objective. By doing this a retrospective look at the program will show weak points and thus make it easier to work on improving these points.
>
> [9] In order to maintain momentum of the program and obtain commitment, feedback relating to the progress and problems must be provided regularly for all involved."[10]

What do we evaluate?

Donald L. Kirkpatrick, in the Training and Development Handbook,[11] has a chapter entitled, "Evaluation of Training," In this chapter he divides evaluation of the training program into four categories - reaction, learning, behavior, and reults.

1) Reaction Evaluation is simply an analysis of the trainees feelings about a particular program. It tells you the degree of apparent acceptance of the program.
2) Learning Evaluation is an attempt to assess the quantity and quality of learning which has taken place during the training session. This type of evaluation will reveal whether information has been transmitted as planned by the training staff. In this step of evaluation you need to know how to administer a test and what type of test to use.
3) Behavior Evaluation is basically a way of measuring before and after job behavior. This type of evaluation is time-consuming and difficult yet it is one of the most important forms of evaluation.
4) Results Evaluation is the most difficult because of the large number of variables the training director must separate and analyze. It is particularly difficult in the library because of the type of organization it is, non-profit and service-oriented.

What types of tests can we use to evaluate?

There are many tests which can be applied to program evaluation. One Learning Resources Center may use one form and another LRC a different one. People who have worked with these tests can better tell us what advantages or disadvantages each type of test might have.

Of assistance in this area of evaluation testing are the following titles:

Evaluating Training and Development Systems by W. R. Tracey.[12]

1) Philosophy and Goals
2) Management
3) Plant and Facilities
4) Staff and Faculty
5) Curriculum
6) Instructional Support

For types of tests you might use:

Effective Training; A Guide for the Company Instructor by D.R. Berry,[13] or The Management of Training by C. P. Otto and R. O. Glaser.[14]

1) Oral Tests
2) Written Tests
3) Performance Tests

Designing Training and Development Systems by W. R. Tracey[15] indicates you can evaluate by means of:

1) Observation
2) Ratings
3) Trainee Surveys
4) Trainee Interviews

To evaluate informal classroom training you can use A Practical Guide for Supervisory Training and Development by Donald L. Kirkpatrick.[16]

How do we go about organizing and analyzing the evaluative information?

We should organize the information in a way which will answer questions asked of the evaluative process.

1) An attempt to collect sufficient information to be able to see patterns should be made. Time, effort, and money spent in analyzing the information should be commensurate with the value of the process.
2) A method of cross checking information should be used.
3) Those connected with the program and its evaluation should be involved in the interpretation of the information. This would strengthen the understanding and acceptance of the process of evaluation.

How do we utilize the evaluative data?

Data from the evaluative process has to be utilized. We can go about utilizing it by first recording our information then recycling it into the program where modifications can be made. But evaluation should not stop here; it should be a continuing process. The recording of our findings can be a guide for evaluations done by other organizations interested in providing better services.

The evaluation process then is a tool by which we measure the effectiveness of our in-service programs. Through the successful implementation of this process our organization can be changed and improved. A closer knit organization can be formed and individuals can feel they are participating in an activity which will improve and expand not only their own individual goals but those of the library as well.

Footnotes

[1] Barbara Conroy, *Staff Development and Continuing Education: Programs for Library Personnel: Guidelines and Criteria* (Boudler, Colorado: WICHE, Jan. 1974), p. 20.

[2] *Ibid.*

[3] *Ibid.*

[4] *Ibid.*, p. 16.

[5] *Ibid.*, p. 17.

[6] William R. Tracey, *Evaluating Training and Development Systems* (New York: American Management Association, 1968), p. 14.

[7] Conroy, p. 17-18.

[8] Tracey, p. 16.

[9] *Ibid.*, p. 16-17.

[10] *Ibid.*, p. 18.

[11] Robert L. Craig and Lester R. Bittel, Eds. *Training and Development Handbook* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967), p. 11.

[12] Tracey, p. 14.

[13] D. R. Berry, *Effective Training: A Guide for the Company Instructor* (Scranton, Pa.: International Correspondence Schools Division of Intext, 1969), p. 109.

[14] Calvin P. Otto and Rollin O. Glaser, *The Management of Training: A Handbook for Training and Development Personnel* (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1970), p. 156-164.

[15] William R. Tracey, *Designing Training and Development Systems* (New York: American Management Association, Inc., 1971), p. 342-350.

[16] Donald L. Kirkpatrick, *A Practical Guide for Supervisory Training and Development* (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1971).

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In-Service Training

Encouragement of Further Education

Continuing education is a fact of life; a recognized and fundamental facet of individual growth; a means of personal development and job enrichment. It requires much more than encouragement, it necessitates institutional or organizational commitment and a line item in the budget which is not subject of the "priority hatchet" but which should realistically be viewed by administrators at ALL levels as an investment for the institution involved.

Dr. Shirley Edsall, in speaking to this subject in a recent doctoral dissertation entitled, Career Patterns of Community College Librarians, provides us with valuable information regarding community college librarian's activities in this area. 46.3% of the librarians surveyed were either working on degrees or had taken courses for credit during the two years preceding her administration of the survey. If we however,expand our definition of continuing education to include participation in institutes,seminars, or workshops, our percentage of librarians involved in some type of continuing education activity increases to 77.5%.

Two tables which might be of particular interest to both librarians and community college administrators, and in that order, is the first representing the "continuing education activities of the librarian" (Table 1) and the second, (Table 2), representing courses taken by librarians in specific "subject areas."

Table 1[1]

CONTINUING EDUCATION ACTIVITIES OF THE LIBRARIANS

Activities	Per Cent[a]
Pursuing a degree	15.1
Master's	3.7
Post-master's	2.5
Specialist	1.5
Doctorate	7.4
Taking courses	31.8
Participating in workshops, etc.	62.4

[a] Does not total 100 per cent as some librarians were engaged in more than one activitiy. (N=324)

Table 2[2]

COURSES TAKEN IN SPECIFIC AREAS

Areas	Librarians	
	Number	Per Cent[a]
Education		
Higher education	114	35.2
Curriculum development	112	34.6
Learning theories	102	31.5
Tests and measurement	89	27.5
History and philosophy of community college education	83	25.6
Reading	73	22.5
Adult education	58	17.9
New technologies in education; e.g., computer-assisted instruction	34	10.5
Programmed instruction	34	10.5
Vocational education	30	9.3

(cont.)

	Number	Per Cent[a]
Library Science/Media		
Audiovisual materials and services	200	61.7
Research methods	161	49.7
Management	111	34.3
Personnel administration	99	30.6
Audiovisual production	95	29.3
Information science	83	25.6
Library automation	77	23.8
Computer programming	56	17.3
Systems analysis	37	11.4
Miscellaneous		
Spanish	101	31.2
Statistics	77	23.8
Minorities	27	8.3
Urban Studies	16	4.9

[a] Does not total 100 per cent as some librarians had taken more than one course. (N=324)

Although the previous narrative is addressed primarily to the "professional," as Learning Resources directors, we have a similar responsibility to "classified staff." An environment should exist where staff members are motivated, encouraged, and supported in their efforts to acquire additional training and skills. Funds allocated for travel and attendance at professional meetings should be apportioned equally among professional and classified staff members. Most important to remember is the fact that such encouragement for further education not only provides the individual with increased competencies and skills, it enlarges and enriches not only the job, but the end product which we all seek to improve, the service rendered.

Footnotes

[1] Shirley Ann Edsall, *Career Patterns of Community College Librarians*, (Bloomington, Ind.: Graduate Library School, Indiana University, 1973), p. 65.

[2] *Ibid*., p. 68.

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In-Service Training

Professional Upgrading and Professional Affilations and Activities

Professional affilations and activities of community college librarians substantially reflect the "local or regional" nature of the institutions they represent. Although they are a very active and association-oriented group of professionals, this activity is rarely visible beyond regional or state levels. Dr. Edsall found in her survey of community college librarians that as regarded the respondents[1] only one-third were members of the American Library Association and only 10% were members of the media-related counterpart, the Association of Educational and Communication Technology. Conversely, however, almost three-quarters (71%) of the respondents belong to a state library-related professional association. A most interesting revelation of Dr. Edsall's study is the fact that *two-thirds* of the respondents reported membership in at least one NON-LIBRARY-REALTED professional association.[2]

As regards "other professional activities' of community college librarians, Dr. Edsall's findings seem to substantiate the fact that these librarians, although engaged in a variety of activities, are somewhat limited by the daily "work-a-day-demands" of the active institutions of which they are a part. She found that 40% of the respondents had engaged in at least 1 of the following professional activities in the last five years[3]: writing or editing books; writing articles, book reviews or bibliographies; consulting; serving on accrediting teams; directing workshops; or speaking at professional meetings. And of these activities only three (writing articles, speaking at meetings, and participating on accrediting teams) were engaged in by approximately 10% of the respondents.

In the area of community service activities, approximately 51% reported some involvement in community service activities, other than those connected with regular library activities.

It is more important that in our professional associations, community service activities, and professional activities that our emphasis be "involvement," not isolation. That we collectively and agressively become active members of our national library association, ALA, and a force which works to make this association one which is TRULY RESPONSIVE to the needs of its constituents, and not a "point-of-order monolith." Community colleges and their librarians may be "educational upstarts," yet as "upstarts" their fresh and less traditional approach to dealing with people and their educational needs has had a monumental impact on our educational structure. What of the library structure?

Footnotes

[1] Shirley Ann Edsall, Career Patterns of Community College Librarians (Bloomington, Ind.: Graduate Library School, Indiana University, 1973), p. 54.

[2] Ibid., p. 56.

[3] Ibid., p. 58.

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Edsall, Shirley Ann. Career Patterns of Community College Librarians. Bloomington, Ind.: Graduate Library School, Indiana University, 1973.

PERSONNEL PERFORMANCE EVALUATION

Roy Cajero

Introduction

Personnel evaluation serves as a fundamental tool of LRC management. This is so because as go the workers so goes the institution. There must be some way in which we can determine how the workers are "going." This shouldn't mean that the purpose of personnel evalution is to "weed" the LRC of deadheads. No doubt, there are many instances where this is the case, and the employees view evaluation as something of a threat and to be avoided.

With these and other facts before us, one might ask how one can evaluate or be evaluated since no one is omniscient and can take into account many of the factors that occur when a person is trying to do a job? Besides, who likes to judge a person, especially if it could effect that person's livelihood?

This problem, therefore, of personnel evaluation is extremely difficult. There exist many variables that no one evaluator can effectively judge to the satisfaction of all people involved. To make definitive statements as to how evaluation can best be accomplished is chancy since by locking yourself into one system you can close off other good avenues.

One other very important consideration is the type of organization in which the evaluation is conducted. Is it centralized or decentralized in structure? Does the staff have input in the decision-making process?

Is the institution using an approach, such as Management-by-Objectives, as a managerial style? If so, does evaluation lend itself to verification by some form of measurable data? Do employees have any input whatsoever during the evaluation process? The questions can go on and on, and often time there are no definitive answers.

An evaluation is a fact of working life! It exists and will exist in some form or manner. Therefore, what one needs to determine is the manner in which it will be accomplished. One tries to conduct evaluation in such a way that is equitable and meaningful to people involved.

If so many problems exist in evaluating personnel, why is evaluation done? There are a number of reasons: Employers want to know how effectively people are doing their work? Who deserves promotion? Transfer? What in-service training is required? These questions can only be answered after someone, somewhere has made a declarative judgment based on whatever subjective-objective, valid-invalid, relevant-irrelevant facts and/or biases were present at the time. Recognizing these problems and trying to deal with them using a sound and flexible evaluation system becomes an urgent need.

At this point it becomes necessary to state the intent of this paper. It is my intent to offer guidelines, suggestions, alternatives, and necessary considerations concerning evaluation. It sets limits or boundaries, but which, hopefully, allow the reader room to maneuver. There are no final answers on this topic. We do what we think will work the best for all involved. This can vary from situation to situation, person to person, and requires thought, judgment, and care.

Purpose of Evaluation

Before one proceeds with any evaluation program, it would be wise to clarify what is to be accomplished and make sure the stated purpose is clear to those persons being evaluated. Lopez suggests that, "the primary purpose of employee evaluation, then is motivation of the employee to higher standards of job performance,"[1] By and of itself, an evaluation program does not guarantee employee motivation. Other organizational factors must be taken into consideration.

Cummings suggests two purposes that evaluation serves:

> "1. It can be used for making administrative decisions about employees in order to determine promotion, transfer, etc. 2. It can be used in conjunction with the staff development program to improve individual performance by pointing out weak areas."[2]

As mentioned earlier, one must first state the purpose of evaluation. Having stated the purpose, one should be aware of some principles of a sound evaluation program. One writer has suggested four:

> "1. Its [the evaluation program] success is the particular responsibility of the operating manager.
>
> 2. The search for simple solutions is utterly futile.
>
> 3. The performance evaluation process should be implemented by an integrated program encompassing specific plans and techniques tailored to the needs of specific occupational classes and designed to meet immediate objectives.
>
> 4. The essence of the performance evaluation program is communication (upward) and relates to pay, promotion, transfer, reclassification, development training aimed at job improvement with its ultimate purpose being change: to raise levels of job performance so that agency [institutional] goals are achieved and each employee realizes a full measure of satisfaction and stimulation on the job."[3]

The evaluation process can next be broken down into a number of steps. These are neither definitive nor standardized and shouldn't be taken as the final word. For most evaluations, these seven steps are involved:

"1. Employee performs his/her job.
2. He/she is observed by supervisor at various times and places.
3. The supervisor is given an evaluation report to complete.
4. The supervisor recalls his previous observations.
5. Contents of the report are communicated to the employee.
6. The report is forwarded to a central unit and interpretation.
7. Various administrative action follows the final interpretation."[4]

I suggest that a further part should be added to step no. 5. Not only should contents be made known to the employee but they should be discussed, allowing the employee an opportunity to repond to evaluation results.

Having stated one's purpose, established certain guidelines, and having identified some general steps, one must now determine just how to evaluate and what is desired in either the person or the results. One must finally determine whether to evaluate the person or performance results - or both.

Person-Oriented Evaluation Procedure

The form contruction for the evaluation procedure is based on five concepts:

"1. Fact vs. Opinion - should emphasize the factual and observable.

2. Minimize recall tasks - should be limited to a specific

time period for clarity and ease.

3. Realistic evaluation factors - make them as few but as job relevant as possible.

4. Meaningful categories - attributes within categories are job relevant, clear, and understood by all parties.

5. Editing for clarity - eliminate ambiguous and general words."[5]

If the evaluation process is person-oriented, the following categories (appear to be) the most frequently used on evaluation forms:

"1. Initiative - includes creativity, originality, ingenuity, motivation.

2. Technical competence - the quality and quantity of work produced, and the ability of the person to meet the job requirements.

3. Reliability and stability - his/her dependability, reliability, attendance, etc.

4. Interpersonal competence - the employee's ability to cooperate and communicate with supervisors, peers, and subordinates.

5. Organizational identification - the way in which the employee identifies with organizational objectives, norms, and roles."[6]

In using the person-oriented type of evaluation there are a number of problems one should be aware of:

"1. Subjectivity - do judgments have basis in fact or do they reflect certain biases and fallibility in the evaluator.

2. Irrelevancy - do job categories have any relevancy to job performance.

3. Ineffectiveness - because of its inherent subjectivity, errors of leniency, irrelevancy, etc....the person-oriented evaluation procedure has definite drawbacks."[7]

One must critically determine whether the person-oriented evaluation method or the performance results evaluation technique responds most effectively to their organizational needs.

Measurement Problems

The evaluator must ask if the evaluation device measures accurately that which was intended. To do this, one needs: a clear understanding of what is to be measured, i.e., does the measurement device measure what it was intended to measure?

Having resolved the previous point, one must deal with the question of relevancy. If the measurement device measures what it says it does, is what it measures job relevant? All unnecessary categories must be eliminated. The relevancy of traits and criteria evaluated can be determined by a number of means:

"1. Comparison of the criteria you are using to evaluate the person with work samples.

2. Comparison with tests - if applicable you would measure a performance capability with a test measuring certain characteristics of the worker. For example, motivation in relation to a typing speed test.

3. Comparison with output measures - must be applied to library situations only when relevant."[8]

Therefore, any criteria used must be:

"1. Job relevant.

2. Measureable either qualitatively or quantitatively.

3. Must be consistent over a period of time."[9]

Reducing Evaluation Uncertainty

The evaluator must have the ability to supervise people, to judge them, and to communicate his judgments to them. The evaluator must have the opportunity to observe the employee's performance periodically and be predisposed favorably towards the evaluation process.

The evaluatee must be able to communicate openly with one's supervisor, have a positive attitude toward the evaluation process, must be evaluated on a representative sample of his work.

As regards the evaluation situation, the purpose of the evaluation should be clearly specified as well as its intended use; the evaluation procedures should be standardized, and only valid and relevant evaluation categories must be used.[10]

Evaluation Forms

In evaluating the person, there are a number of standardized evaluation formats that one can use. Generally, these varying formats can be somewhat conveniently divided into three categories: Performance trait procedures; performance comparison procedures, and performance description procedures. These three categories can be further subdivided into more specific units. Performance TRAIT procedures are made up of: a) discrete category scales, b) graphic scales, and c) adjectival scales. Performance COMPARISON procedures might include: a) simple ranking techniques, b) the paired comparison technique, and c) the forced distribution method. Performance DESCRIPTION procedures involve: a) free response reports, b) performance checklists, and c) the forced choice technique.

Each of these formats will be briefly discussed in order to introduce the reader to these basic evaluation formats for personnel. What follows has been adopted from Evaluating Employee Performance, by Felix

M. Lopez, Jr.:[11]

I. Performance Trait Procedures

A. Discrete Category Scales

--This method involves the use of a number of traits that are evaluted on a "yes/no, satisfactory/unsatisfactory" basis. The rater judges the individual on the selected traits in this rather straightforward and rather simple manner.

--Possible weaknesses include: a) the difficulty in creating truly discrete, real categories that clearly breakdown behavioral traits; b) the discrete category method fails to include other relevant factors that are important to and separable from the discrete trait.

B. The Graphic Scales

--This format allows the rater greater flexibility in that besides offering categories to be judged, it expands the number of values beyond the simple "yes/no" criteria. These values allow for a greater shading in determining the effectiveness of an employee. For example, in responding to a question dealing with the characteristic trait "RELIABILITY," the rater, instead of answering "yes or no"....answers from either a numerical or adjectival scale of varying degrees.

--Weaknesses include: a) the fact that the continuous values assigned are abstractions that the rater gives his or her subjective meaning to - whatever that may be.

C. The Adjectival Scale

--This method works by providing the list of traits with which the employee will be judged under which are descriptive-adjectival statements that explain the trait to be evaluated.

--Weaknesses of this method include: a) the inability of the adjectival scale terms to cover all specific employee performances; b) in using adjectival terms, the scale becomes similar to using the discrete (yes/no) scales of the discrete category.

For all performance trait procedures, one should be aware of over-simplifying ahd giving biased, quick answers that don't evaluate the person so much as gloss over the complexities of what one is trying to evaluate.

II. Performance Comparison Procedures

A. Simple Ranking Techniques

--This method involves the listing of work traits and then ranking your employees from highest to lowest in comparison to how well they meet the specified trait. This is "simple ranking."

--Certain other important characteristics of simple ranking are: a) many people ranked fall into a muddy middle area where no fair judgments are possible; b) people doing specialized or unique jobs for which there is no comparison cannot be measured; and c) it tends to exaggerate the differences among workers in terms of performance.

B. Paired Comparison Technique

--Workers doing similar tasks and job functions are compared - each worker to all the rest with workers being eventually ranked according to favorable or unfavorable evaluator responses.

C. Forced Distribution Technique

--Employees are ordered or placed from high to low within the bell shaped frequency distribution. A certain number of employees will be placed high, most in the middle, and some low. The distribution is broken down within five areas in the bell curve.

--As with the other evaluation methods in the performance comparison method, this technique has a number of major difficulties: a) the task of ranking a number (Lopez suggests 15+) of employees can be laborius for a supervisor; b) it misleads in that the differences in persons ranked (in this manner) are confusing and varying; and c) it really tells one nothing about doing a satisfactory job, it solely ranks and compares.

III. Performance Description Procedures

A. Free Response Reports

--A blank paper is given to a supervisor. He or she is to indicate performance trends of the individual and how he/she can best improve his work. This method can lead to much subjectivity and confusion and has difficulty in that it is hard to translate verbal judgments into numerical values.

B. Forced Choice Technique

--The person who evaluates must judge on the basis of various alternative statements that describe the ability of the employee to do the job. People being rated by this method can be compared using criteria that are relevant to job performance.

--Advantages of this method include: a) minimize subjectivity; b) it can produce a "standardized, objective index;" and c) extremely job performance relevant when criteria are chosen properly by empirical investigation.

--Disadvantages include the fact that this method: a) is time consuming and requires evaluation ability; b) it requires computer access for speed and efficiency.

Evaluating by Results

As stated earlier, there are a number of ways to evaluate. Do you evaluate the person or the performance? I tend to favor an evaluation program based on performance. I believe this way because I feel uncomfortable knowing that a person is judging me,or, I am having to judge a person on certain traits that may or may not be relevant for job performance. I'am afraid of the evaluator's bias towards me, and I don't like to be evaluated using what I feel are irrelevant criteria such as manner of dress, attitude, personality, and a host of others. The important thing to me is whether or not I am doing the job. All else is secondary. Therefore, I prefer performance by results.

Management-By-Objectives

According to Cummings there are four basic concepts that pervade MBO:

> "1. Define goals for employee with the participation of the employee.
>
> 2. The subordinate carries out the action.
>
> 3. The performance evaluation takes place - often begins by having the worker do a self appraisal and then discussing it with the supervisor.
>
> 4. Establish new goals for worker."[12]

A problem arises here that must be resolved. Let's assume we have a situation in a library where a number of part-time student help is involved. In this case MBO would flounder since the transitory nature of the work force will inhibit the process on which MBO runs. This particular problem could be simplified by altering and cutting the program to fit the situation. Suppose we defined clearly to the student workers what their jobs were and then checked occassionally to see if what was supposed to be accomplished actually was. Cases like this will arise and therefore one must keep constantly aware of making evaluation procedures suitable to the situation. If an individual is to be evaluated based on performanceresults, the individual should be made fully aware of what is to be performed.

When one is dealing with an MBO performance evaluation situation where there are measureable standards, one must be aware of the varying kinds of performance standards. Morrisey suggest three:

> "1. Predetermined standards - those standards set for the job irrespective of the employee performing it.
>
> 2. Comparison performance - how does this worker's performance compare with similar workers?
>
> 3. Individual employee her/himself - can set his/her own standards as to how he/she did in comparison to what they were doing earlier."[13]

Further, in dealing with performance standards that the supervisor sets, one should take into consideration the fact that standards should be : 1) realistic and achievable; 2) should be slightly above average so that the job can't be done with one of the worker's hands tied; and 3) subject to change.[14]

At some point, it comes time to judge the results. Having clarified the jobs, defined reasonable standards and measurable criteria, the evaluator makes a final decision as to whether or not the job was done.

If the job was accomplished, fine, one has accomplished what one had intended. Set up some more objectives with the worker. However, if performance expectations weren't achieved, one asks with the partipation of the evaluatee what the causes for non-achievement were: the employee? the supervisor? or the situation? Any combination? I further suggest using a device - an open ended form - with which the evaluatee can suggest certain causes that might have affected the employee's inability to meet the objectives. This should be reviewed carefully with the supervisor, as well as reviewing the supervisor's findings as to what the causes were.

In summary, I suggest that one be extremely flexible in using any performance evaluation. Quite possibly it would be best not to use either the person-oriented or performance-oriented systems by themselves. Any combination of them is possible and advisable depending upon the circumstances.

Footnotes

[1] Felix M. Lopez, Jr., *Evaluating Employee Performance* (Chicago: Public Personnel Association, 1968), p. 50.

[2] L. L. Cummings, and Donald P. Schwab, *Performance in Organizations; Determinants and Appraisals* (Glenview, Ill.: Scott, Foresman, and Co.), p. 4.

[3] Felix M. Lopez, Jr. in *Strengthening Employee Performance Evaluation* by Robert Coop, et. al, Personnel Report Series No. 663 (Chicago: Public Personnel Association), p. 2.

[4] Lopez, *Evaluating Employee Performance*, p. 164.

[5] *Ibid.*, p. 209.

[6] *Ibid.*, p. 210.

[7] *Ibid.*, p. 211.

[8] *Ibid.*, p. 177-178.

[9] *Ibid.*, p. 180.

[10] *Ibid.*, p. 182-184.

[11] *Ibid.*, p. 187-208.

[12] Cummings, *Performance in Organizations*, p. 96.

[13] George L. Morrisey, *Appraisal and Development Through Objectives and Results* (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Pub. Co., 1972), p. 59-60.

[14] *Ibid*., p. 49.

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PROMOTION, TRANSFERS, TENURE

Promotion (Relating to Professional Personnel)

Seemingly, a dichotomy exists in the promotional policy of the Learning Resources Center; however such a segmenting is intended to repond, positively, to the developmental needs of the professional librarian as well as those of the support staff member. This division is not as distinct as one would assume, but criteria exist which apply uniquely to each group. For this reason, we have sub-divided this segment of the Handbook into promotion relative to the professional librarian and secondly, promotion relative to the support staff member of the Learning Resources Center.

1. "Librarians should be promoted through ranks and steps on the basis of their academic proficiency and professional effectiveness. A peer review system similar to that used by other faculty is the primary basis of judgment in the promotion process for academic librarians. The librarians' promotion ladder should have the same title, ranks, and steps as that of other faculty."[1]

2. Carl Hintz, in his article entitled, "Criteria for Appointment to and Promotion in Academic Ranks," suggests that criteria for advancement of professional library personnel include the following:

   "1. Teaching or instructional effectiveness shall be interpreted to mean the special kind of teaching, either group or individual, direct or indirect, that a librarian does. Such instruction may be judged by:
      a) qualified student and faculty opinion;
      b) informal opinion of colleagues;
      c) effectiveness in the development and use of library eesources for undergraduate, (faculty, and community patron) research programs.
      d) efficiency in the performance of library

technical operations supporting instructional programs and research programs.

2. Research or creative work should be rewarded, recognizing the several limitations on such activities because of the demands on time and energy. This may be judged by:
   a) publication of books, articles, reviews, and reports of a scholarly nature;
   b) creative achievement involving musical composition, creative writing, original design, skillful production, and superior artistic performance.
   c) preparation of high-level administrative studies;
   d) mastery of bibliographic resources.

3. Professional competence and activity. This may be judged by:
   a) active participation in professional associations;
   b) efforts for professional growth through further study;
   c) study for advanced degrees;
   d) knowledgability in matters of educational philosophy and administration.

4. Service to university, including committee and administrative activity, is judged by:
   a) service and leadership in the internal affairs of the university beyond the duties of the position held on the faculty;
   b) supervision of library personnel;
   c) demonstrated administrative ability and capacity for administration.

5. Public service includes participation on statewide committees, participation in professional activities in the state and nation, consultation, and community service."[2]

Promotion (Relating to Support Staff Personnel)

Support staff as defined in this Handbook refer to paraprofessionals, library technical assistants, and clerical staff. And in defining promotion, we are speaking of the advancement of an individual to a better job - better in terms of greater responsibilities, more prestige or "status," greater skill, and accompanied by an increase in salary.

"1. Promotions are based upon evidence of satisfactory performance, service ratings, promise of future development, and educational, technical, and personal qualifications.

2. In devising a promotional policy, one of the most important questions requiring resolution is the relative significance of seniority and competence. Promotion should be a reward to encourage LRC staff members who make a successful effort to increase their knowledge or skill and who maintain a high level of productivity. Seniority should be considered, but only when the qualifications of two candidates for a better job are, for practical purposes, substantially equal.

3. When promotions are made on the basis of competence and ability, rather than primarily on length of service, there should be no discriminiation among candidates because of sex, race, religion, or national origin.

4. As part of promotional policy, a clearly defined statement regarding how seniority will be determined must be written. In such a policy one must take into account what the 'seniority unit' will be (i.e., department, occupation, etc.) and within that unit - how seniority is to be computed, and under what circumstances/situations it is broken. Computation of seniority within any LRC can be made in several ways:
   a. It can start when individual is first employed, regardless of subsequent transfers, layoffs, leaves of absence, sabbaticals, etc.
   b. The interruptions mentioned in (a) above could be deducted to compute 'net length' of service.
   c. Seniority could be computed from the date when staff member was LAST hired.

In any case, when decisions have been reached, the seniority of each staff member should be computed and posted, so that staff members can be informed of their relative seniority standings and any errors corrected before the seniority list needs to be actually used.

5. Other elements which should be considered for inclusion in the promotion policy are:
   a. A statement that it is the intention of LRC administration that advancement to better jobs will be filled by 'promotion from within' whenever possible, rather than by hiring from outside.
   b. Establishment of lines of progression - ladders of promotion. It is desirable to use job analysis to develop a chart showing basic job requirements (in competence, experience, formal education, etc.)

and how each job leads to another. Staff members should be fully informed about ladders of promotion, how they can prepare themselves for advancement, and what will be expected of them on the higher-rated jobs.

c. Line responsibility for making promotions, i.e., the staff member's supervisor should propose or recommend promotions, which should then be subject to review and concurrence by his immediate supervisor in the organization.

d. Actual postings of openings for promotion, should precede searching routines outside the organization by a time sufficient enough to allow interested employees to make formal application and express their interests.

e. There should exist provision for training as a means of preparation for promotion. In-service training, continuing education programs should have promotion and the self-development of the individual as objectives."[3]

Transfers

While promotion implies an assignment to new duties, involving increased reponsibilities and carrying with it an increase in salary and a change in class or position; a transfer, on the other hand, is a shift of an employee to a position of the same grade in another unit, without an increase in salary.

1. "Transfers are made whenever feasible or necessary to meet the needs of the library and the welfare of the staff. They are used:
   a. as an aid in proper placement;
   b. for in-service training;
   c. to provide additional or wider experience;
   d. to achieve more effective personnel utilization;
   e. as a means of equalizing promotional opportunities, i.e., movement from one unit or department where the rate of turnover is low to another which offers more possibilities to the employee."[4]

2. A systematic transfer policy is needed to get reasonable consistency of treatment throughout the library. In formulating the policy, information and decisions are needed in the

following areas:[5]

a. The circumstances under which transers will be made, i.e., are operations in different units of the LRC sufficiently alike to permit transfers?
b. Who should have responsibility for initiating and approving transfers?
c. Jobs to which transfers will be made, i.e., How much training, if any, will be required, and how much time should a transferee be given to demonstrate that he can satisfactorily perform the job?
d. Basis for transfers, when two or more persons desire transfer to the same job. What significance will seniority, skill or competence, or what importance, if any, whould be given to marital status and dependency?
f. The rate of pay or salary to be received by the transferee.

3. "If, for reasons of ill health, age, or other responsibilities, an employee is unable to fulfill the requirements of his position, and if circumstances permit, he may be transferred to a position of equal rank involving less strain or to part-time employment.

4. Promotions and transfers are discussed in advance with staff members concerned, in order to explain reasons for the moves and whenever possible, to give consideration to employees' wishes."[6]

Tenure

> "Tenure provides that no person continuously retained as a full-time faculty member beyond a specified period of probationary service may thereafter be dismissed WITHOUT ADEQUATE CAUSE. Moreover, the particular standards of ADEQUATE CAUSE, are themselves wholly within the perogative of each university to determine through its own published rules, save only that those rules not be applied in a manner which violates the academic freedom or the ordinary personal civil liberties of the individual."[7]

Tenure is a principle or policy which as gained for academicians, including librarians, for increasing professional security and academic freedom in colleges and universities across the nation. Community college faculty have likewise been experiencing concern and involvement in this area. Some have argued that tenure for the community college faculty is inappropriate as regards its philosophy and goals; others, have expressed the view that a faculty member, for faithful and exemplary service, rightfully deserves this professional security.

If tenure does exist, the following suggestions and statements should prove helpful in the preparation of this segment of the Handbook.

1. "Librarians should be covered by tenure provisions the same as those of other faculty. In the pretenure period, librarians should be covered by written contracts or agreements the same as those of other faculty."[8]
2. Tenure as used in this document and elsewhere, pertains to professional library personnel. Learning Resources Center Support staff have not fallen under the "tenure process" per se. With the advent of unionism, civil service inclusion, and support staff associations, somewhat similar tenure processes are emerging for support personnel as well.
3. Rather than duplicate already explicitly defined policies and procedures in this area, I would simply recommend that the section of ALA's Library Administration Division publication, *Personnel Organization and Procedure*, dealing with "separation from service" be used for support staff members, along with the LAD Report, "Developing Termination Policies and Procedures," *American Libraries* (January 1973). For the professional library personnel, I would recommend the AAUP's *1972 Recommended Institutional Regulations on Academic Freedom and Tenure*.

Footnotes

[1] "Standards for Faculty Status for College and University Librarians," *College and Research Libraries News* 35(May 1974): 112.

[2] Carl Hintz, "Criteria for Appointment to and Promotion in Academic Rank," *College and Research Libraries* 29(September 1968): 346.

[3] Paul Pigors and Charles A. Myers, *Personnel Administration: a Point of View and a Method*. 5th ed. (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1965), p. 406-407.

[4] Personnel Administration Section. Library Administration Division. *Personnel Organization and Procedure: A Manual for Use in College and University Libraries*. 2nd ed. (Chicago: American Library Association, 1968), p. 16.

[5] Pigor , p. 413.

[6] Personnel Administration Division. Library Administration Division, p. 16.

[7] William Van Alstyne, "Tenure: A Summary, Explanation, and 'Defense," *AAUP Bulletin* 57(September 1971): 328.

[8] "Standards for Faculty Status for College and University Librarians," *College and Research Libraries* 35(May 1974): 112.

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WORKING CONDITIONS

This segment of the Handbook speaks to the "day-to-day working conditions" of a library. The subject matter applies to both the professional staff member and the classified staff member, however the points may not be applicable to both, simultaneously. This segment is divided into the following sub-divisions: a) Work Week and Work Load; b) Leaves of Absence; and c) Sabbatical Leave. Each individual section addresses itself to concerns and topics which can significantly effect the "environment" of the library or learning resources center.

Work Week and Work Load

Janice Johnson

This section is presented as a portion of an administrative handbook for LRC administrators and speaks to the subject of staff working conditions. Though material was scarce, and for the most part redundant, I have consolidated the findings of the literature search and present here, what I feel a segment of a handbook on working conditions should entail. Sources for my information were generally derived from statistics and trends of working conditions in libraries of various types, i.e., public, college and university, and special libaries.

In addition, this writer interviewed individuals who were employed in various library settings, specifically:

a) A former employee of a large metropolitan public library
b) A former employee of a large public school system library
c) An employee on leave of absence from a university library

Each of these library staff members were interviewed independently and were asked individually the following questions:

1) How many hours per week did you work?
2) What type of work schedule did you have?
3) Did you receive any compensation (additional renumeration, additional time off, etc.) for working irregular or unusual hours?
4) How long were you permitted time-wise for your lunch break?
5) Were you permitted coffee breaks? If so, of what duration?
6) Were lounge or canteen facilities available to you?
7) How many sick days were you permitted?

The responses received from the interviewees did not vary surprisingly, from the findings of a survey[1] of 400 libraries of various types conducted in 1968. Note the responses to the questions posed above:

Topic	Public Library Employee	School Library Employee	University Library Employee
Hours in Work Week	40	40-45	37-43
Comepnsation for Unusual Hrs.	YES	NO	YES
Lunch Hour Break	1-1 1/2 hrs.	1 hr..	1-2 hrs.
Coffee Breaks	two 15 mins.	no	occasionally
Lounge/Canteen Facilities	Yes-Adequate	Yes-Adequate	Yes-Excellent
Sick Days Permitted	1 1/4 per month	10 per 9 mths.	2 per month

In presenting the following guidelines relative to working conditions, it is assumed that individual situations and institutional policy may entail variance and non-compliance. Research in this area however suggests the following "general consensus" of the literature survey and general agreement on the contents.

Hours of Work

Full-time members of the library staff work 37 1/4 hours (if on an hourly scale) for a five day per week schedule arranged by the head of each department or unit of service. Assistants are not usually scheduled for more than two evenings per week and never more than three.

No morning, afternoon, or evening schedule exceeds four hours, except in unusual emergencies.

Holidays

A written notice indicating legal holidays (list of Holidays) when the library is closed should be prepared. Staff members may be scheduled to work on other "holiday days" when the library is open (list). Should this occur, the staff member working is allowed the option of taking equivalent time off at a later date convenient to the member or of receiving additional pay at the regular salary rate. When a legal holiday falls on a day which is a regular day off for a staff member, the member may take equivalent time off at a later date.

For members of religious groups which have special observances on days other than legal holidays observed by the library, the supervisor arranges the schedule so that employees may absent themselves on their own time. The supervisor whenever possible, allows these employees to make up the lost time.

Sunday Work

Such Sunday work as is required is included in the 37 1/4 hours per week schedule and is arranged on a rotating basis. This allows an equitable distribution of assignments among employees who are qualified for the duties involved. Sunday schedules are planned at least a month in advance.

Time for Meals and Relaxation

One hour on the staff member's own time is allowed for lunch or dinner, and staff members are usually required to take the full hour. Each staff member should be allowed a "break period" of 15 minutes of library time during each half of a day's work schedule.

Work Load

The supervisor is responsible for maintaining a proper balance in the work load of each position. In assigning duties and in managing the flow of work in his unit, he delegates responsibilities so that each employee may maintain a high level of performance in all duties of the position. The supervisor should alternate monotonous and fatiguing duties, in sofar as possible, with those which are more stimulating and challenging.

Leaves of Absence

Although the topic of "Leaves of Absence" is presented in the paper immediately following this one, the following items are offered as a basis for comparison of the information discovered by individuals accomplishing independent research. For the most part, the information found in this paper does not duplicate the findings of the other but tends to supplement it.

Vacations

Annual vacation with pay is granted to full-time and part-time employees working on a regular schedule, exclusive of temporary assistants and substitutes. The amount varies according to individual institutional policy and the hours worked per week. Vacations must normally be taken within the calendar year in which they are granted, and at least two-thirds of vacation leave as a unit. Any deviation from this procedure is normally approved by the chief librarian. For purposes of determining the vacation allowance, the vacation year is figured ______ through______. Holidays falling during the vacation period are not counted as part of the vacation allowance.

After _______ (normally six) years of service, an extended vacation of not more than 22 working days or 44 working days with half-pay may be granted professional librarians for study or travel, at the discretion of the chief librarian. Six years after the taking of one extended vacation, another may be permitted. This leave should not be considered as an earned vacation, but rather as a means of making extensive travel or study possible without a reduction of salary.

Sick Leave

Sick leave with pay, based on a five-day work week, is allowed to all full-time employees and to part-time employees working on a regular schedule, exclusive of temporary employees and substitutes. The sick leave allowance is granted when employees are incapacitated by illness or injury, or when they must be absent for medical, dental, or optical examination and treatment which cannot be arranged outside of scheduled working hours.

Up to one day per month of sick leave with pay may be allowed to all full-time members of the staff. Part-time employees working on a regular schedule receive the same sick leave allowance but at the "part-time rate" of pay. Unused sick leave may be accumulated up to _____ working days and carried indefinitely. The accumulated amount may be used in any year after the current year's allowance has been used. If institutional policy dictates that sick leave is non-cumulative, this policy should be clearly stipulated and disseminated to all employees.

Suspected abuse of the sick leave privilege may result at any time in the requirement of a doctor's certificate for all illnesses.

Illness or Death in Family

Adequate leave with pay is allowed in case of serious illness or death of an employee's immediate family or household. The amount of leave is dependent on the amount of travel time required, but in case of death of an immediate member of employee's family is not less than three working days, and in case of serious illness in the family is not more than five working days. In both cases, if more time is needed, the employee may draw upon his sick leave allowance.

Jury and Military Duty

Staff members working half-time or more a week who are drafted for jury duty or as a witness in court will be granted leave with pay, unless, in rare circumstances, difficulties of the schedule should make it advisable for the library to ask that the staff member be excused. Staff members working half-time or more a week who are in a military reserve unit and are ordered to temporary duty will be granted leave with pay for _______ working days. Those entering military service will be granted leave of absence in conformity with federal and state regulations.

Other Leaves

Staff members may be granted leave of absence without pay, at the discretion of the chief librarian. Request for such leave should be made in writing to the chief librarian. This leave should usually be for professional purposes, however it may be ganted for other reasons, such as vacation, travel, or additional sick leave. Leaves with pay are also granted for further study, and such terms of these absences are usually enumerated in institutional policy handbooks.

Footnotes

[1] Peter Jordan, Working Conditions in Libraries: A Survey. London: Association of Assistant Librarians, 1968.)

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Leaves and Vacations

Charles Ransom

> "Staff status and salary are two of the most important factors in employee satisfaction and performance, but there are other conditions which have an important bearing on the staff member's attitude toward his work. These conditions include physical factors, library hours, hours of work, promotion and tenure, and time off with pay."[1]

This factor has been broken down into the following subdivisions: a) Sick Leave; b) Leaves of Absence; and c) Vacations.

This paper will also provide a synopsis of two studies completed, one of leave practices of a group of junior/community colleges; the other, a survey of leave practices in 1,600 corporations listed on the New York Stock Exchange with 200 or more employees. Finally, this writer will point out what he believes to be the best policies regarding leave practices. Before analyzing these studies, a brief overview of the laws governing leave practices will be presented.

Federal and State Regulations

After researching the federal statutes and those of the state of Indiana, only two laws dealing with leave practices were discovered. The first states that if an employee is inducted into the armed forces he must be given a leave of absence and reinstated in his original job at his last salary once the service obligation is completed. This statute creates certain problems for an employer, that must be dealt with by law. The other law, a state of Indiana statute, states that an employer must give four hours or a reasonable amount of time needed by employees to vote. Most states have similar rulings governing employee's time off to exercise their franchise privilege. These were the only two laws discovered dealing with "leaves" of any form.

The Equal Opportunity Commission (EEOC) was responsible for a 1968 decision covering maternity leave. This decision states:

> "The EEOC believes that women returning from maternity leave should be reinstated. To provide substantial equality of treatment of both sexes, there must be special recognition of absence due to pregnancy, according to the government agency. Absence due to illness or injury should not be equated with absence due to maternity....as maternity is a temporary disability unique to the female sex which should be anticipated. A leave of absence should be granted for pregnancy whether or not it is granted for illness according to this EEOC decision."[2]

As a rule six months is most often applied for an expectant mother to be absent from work. In a survey of corporations, the maximum maternity leave allowed is two years.[3] Many companies allow the doctor to decide when it is best fo the mother to return to work. Most companies do not allow sick leave to pay for maternity absence, however, some allow vacation time.

Community College Leave Studies

Librarians in many junior/community colleges have faculty status. With such status, additional fringe benefits, and specifically in the area of leaves of absence and vacation, normally emerge. In a 1968 study,[4] it was found that 20 different fringe benefits exist in these colleges. Interestingly, the benefit that ranked highest in priority was "availability of a retirement program." Ninety-nine percent of the schools surveyed reported offering this benefit. In most of the schools, this program entailed some form of a state retirement system.

Other benefits in descending order of priority with associated percentage offering the benefit, are listed below:

Benefit	% of Colleges Offering this Benefit
Some type of Health Insurance Program	96%
Some type of Sick Leave Program	92%
Opportunity of 6-10 Sick Leave Days per year	57%

An interesting finding as regards sick leave was the fact that 59% indicated that faculty members could accumulate up to 61 days of sick leave. All of the colleges stipulated that they paid a faculty member's salary while on sick leave.

Fifty-two percent of the colleges surveyed, offered a program of leaves of asbences with pay. The most frequent residency requirement for leaves with pay was seven years. Another 76% indicated they allowed a leave of one year with half-pay or one half-year with full pay. The most common stipulation for taking a leave with pay was "advanced study." Of the colleges studied, 65% had leaves available "without pay" for faculty members. In 71% of the junior colleges, faculty members were eligible after first three year of employment.

This study is important for librarians, in that in most cases they are covered by the same fringe benefits as "teaching faculty" members. In addition, many states have benefit plans covering state employees, and junior college faculty falling under a state system, as stipulated under the institution's charter, may be state employees.

One of the most extensive studies in the area of "fringe benefits" is that accomplished by Francis P. King, in the book entitled, Benefit Plans in Junior Colleges. This study adds signficnatly to the literature relevant to items for inclusion in a handbook dealing with this subject.. The following items are references for the reader's consideration and proved most helpful in coming "to grips" with this research project.

1. "Nineteen out of twenty public supported junior colleges have sick leave, paid sick leave, salary continuation, and group disability income insurance plans. In private junior colleges, the figure is three out of every four. No significant differences in coverage among faculty, administrators, or service-clerical personnel are revealed, although a slightly higher percentage is reported in private junior colleges for service-clerical personnel than for faculty."[5]

2. "The dividing line between short-term and long-term disabilities is six months."[6]

3. "A formal paid sick leave plan is defined as an officially adopted plan, stated in writing as part of personnel policy. A formal plan for salary continuation or sick leave sets forth: the duration of salary continuation during disability; the portion of salary that is continued; and the conditions under which the income is paid. The full statement normally appears in the college's personnel policy manual. A full or shortened description is normally included in the faculty handbook and in booklets describing employee benefit plans. These benefits are normally paid directly from the line-item of the budget earmarked as salary. Very few policy statements attempt to define disabilities covered in the plans. The plans normally provide a stated number of sick leave days per month, semester, or year of service. Ten days per year is perhaps the most frequent allocation. Most junior colleges place limits on the number of days an employee can accumulate. They normally fall between 30 and 120 days."[7]

4. "Insured plans providing short-term disability income are sometimes called accident and sickness; weekly indemnity; or wage replacement insurance. They usually pay a weekly income for a stated period. The amounts vary from half to two-thirds of the employee's take-home pay. The payments usually start after four to eight days of disability."[8]

5. "Workmen's compensation benefits are administered by state commissions. The employer is normally required to secure the insurance through means specified by law.

> They provide benefits for employee's suffering work-connected injuries and occupational illness. Five states require employees to provide benefits during temporary non-occupational disability: California, Hawaii, New Jersey, New York, and Rhode Island."[9]

Industrial Leave Studies

The National Industrial Conference Board survey, Time Off With Pay, stated there are generally two types of time off with pay practices:

> 1. "Those that are largely designed to provide leisure without loss of income, notably vacations and holidays;
> 2. Those that allow an employee to handle some 'personal problem' or civic responsibility on regular work days."[10]

There are two basic philosophies underlying the existence of vacations:

> 1. "A vacation permits an employee to enjoy a period of rest and relaxation, which improves his health, efficiency, and work performance in the year ahead. This benefits the individual as well as the company.
> 2. The employee is entitled to time off with pay as part of his total compensation. He has earned it by virtue of his past service."[11]

The philosophy one takes affects the vacation plan. If the first approach is taken, the employee cannot work and take additional pay. The company may not normally allow vacations to be split or taken in segments; however if they are, then a minimum number of days taken at one time is usually stipulated. On the other hand, if the latter approach is taken then the emphasis is on pay rather than use of vacation time. Vacation money is considered as part of the total compensation package. For example, an employee is given vacation pay if he is eligible for it when he terminates his job for any reason. The other leisure "time-off with pay" practice pertains to holidays.

Generally there are eight paid holidays, however there is some variation in what specific days are viewed as holidays. Generally the following days are designated as "paid holidays": a) New Year's Day; b) Good Friday; c) Memorial Day; d) Independence Day; e) Labor Day; f) Election Day, New Year's Eve, or Christmas Eve; g) Thanksgiving Day; and h) Christmas Day.

The other "time-off with pay" practice involves personal problems or civic responsibility. The personal problems aspect is generally broken down into the following subdivisions: a) Death in the family; b) Illness in the family; c) Medical-dental-optical appointments; and d) Marriage of the employee. Generally speaking, the first one is the only one for which a time limit is set (three days normally) while for the remaining reasons, individual circumstances determine each case. "Civic responsibilities" include voting, jury duty, serving as a trial witness, and military reserve duty. In most cases the employee is not penalized by a loss of pay for performing a civic duty, except this particular study suggested some discrimination between white collar and blue collar workers existed. Some companies give white collar workers time off with pay while "docking" blue collar workers for similar time off.

Conclusion

Many times the library is constrained in what types of leaves are granted, by state and federal laws and company or college leave policies. However, if your junior college allows the LRC director the freedom to set the leave policies of the library, the main point to remember is fairness and consistency in policy formulation. If the college already has leave policies established, the librarian should make certain that all staff members know and understand these policies. I personally feel, that the LRC director should be empowered to establish leave policies for the library. The LRC director creates the atmosphere in the library. If he (the director) wants to create a free atmosphere in the library, and the administration has oppressive policies, the existence of such policies may seriously impede the atmosphere of openness and freedom the director is attempting to create.

Footnotes

[1] Guy R. Lyle, The Administration of the College Library (New York: H.W. Wilson Co.), p. 195.

[2] "Most Firms Limit Work of Expectant Mother," Administrative Management 23(April 1971): 50.

[3] Ibid.

[4] Clarence W. Roberts, "Fringe Benefits in Public Junior Colleges," Junior College Journal 39(October 1968): 28-29.

[5] Francis P. King, Benefit Plans in Junior Colleges. (Washington, D.C.: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1971), p. 194.

[6] Ibid.

[7] Ibid., p. 197.

[8] Ibid., p. 206.

[9] Ibid., p. 207.

[10] Mitchell Meyer and Michael E. Edmonds, Time Off With Pay; Studies in Personnel Policy, No. 196. (New York: National Industrial Conference Board, Inc.), p. 6.

[11] Ibid., p. 10.

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Sabbatical Leaves

Doris L. Greer

The primary purpose of this paper is focus on sabbatical leave for the academic librarian. This paper is based on the belief that academic librarians should be given full faculty status and with it the accompanying privilege of sabbatical leave. What is sabbatical leave? According to Good's Dictionary of Education a sabbatical is:

> "A plan for providing....an opportunity for self-improvement through a leave of absence with full or partial compensation following a designated number of years of consecutive service (originally after 6 years)."[1]

> "Sabbatical programs in institutions of higher learning began in the United States at Harvard in 1880 and by 1920 had spread over to 50 public and private colleges and universities."[2]

Sabbaticals can be used by conscientious staff members for self-improvement, either through further study, research, writing, or travel. It is imperative with the advances in knowledge and information sciences that the professional librarian keep up with constantly changing environmental situation.

A sabbatical program should provide academic librarians with an opportunity to learn new skills, new subjects, and gain a wider and more current knowledge of the world. Such a program would prove personally beneficial to the librarian as well as the library and the institution of which it is an integral part. "Often librarians who may have faculty status do not take advantage of sabbaticals because they would have to take leave with half salary."[3] Of course, leave under such conditions would present financial hardships for most people and therefore result in minimal numbers affording themselves opportunities inherent in the sabbatical.

One of the reasons librarians have not been granted sabbaticals is the viewpoint that they do not engage in direct group instruction of students. Although librarians may not usualy engage in direct group instruction their work does play an important part in the learning process of the student. In some colleges, freshmen classes do come to the librarian to be instructed in the uses and purposes of the library. Also in many audio-visual centers (which are sometimes combined with the library) the librarian instructs students in the use of "learning machines" such as video-tapes, tape recorders, film projectors, etc., needed for class work.

In 1968, a study was made to determine the extent of sabbaticals given to librarians in 52 universities.

> "Of the 52 universities 39 gave sabbatical leaves to faculty members and librarians were eligible in 27 of these. Twelve of the 15 liberal arts colleges had sabbatical plans for faculty members, and in 6 of these institutions librarians were also eligible. Well-defined standards were in effect in both colleges and universities stipulating the particular librarians who were eligible; 11 other institutions defined eligibility in terms of faculty rank."[4]

In some of the universities, specifications were placed upon the way in which leave could be used. Most universities stipulated that the leave _must_ be used for study and/or research. Other responses included activities promoting professional growth, scholarly pursuits, writing, creative work, travel, and any project approved by committee or administrator. In 2 universities, the librarian was specifically prohibited from using the time to acquire an advanced degree. In most instances there was very little financial assistance available for sabbatical leave. In some cases the head librarian might be given full salary for half a year or half salary for a full year of study.

Librarians must be recognized formally as members of the academic community with equivalent and academic ranks. Like their colleagues in the classroom, college and university librarians desire to be an integral part of that faculty power that has been emerging in the colleges and universities of this land. Academic librarians desire to exercise effective control over the selection, retention, and promotion of their members; they desire self-determination on the job; they desire to draw up their own work schedules as do faculty members and engage in evaluation of performance. They are demanding also the academic work year, the work week, comparable salaries with the faculty, sabbatical leaves, and faculty titles.

It is the responsibility of the new academic librarian, who desires to become a library-faculty member, to help destroy the depersonalization that college and university students protest about, and make the library not only a learning but a teaching environment. The librarian must encourage the use of library materials by students, faculty, and administration.

Another point to be discussed is the inflexibility of librarians. Just as a teacher may be required to change his teaching style in 3 to 5 years or they adopt another theory as a result of research, the librarian must learn to alter, adapt, and respond to ever-changing demands in his profession. Only a few academic librarians engage in research or continuing education programs to bring a fresh point of view to the library profession.

Fortunately many colleges and universities have recognized the essentially academic nature of the work of professional librarians by granting them academic or faculty status. It is important that these colleges and universities recognize the need for a sabbatical leave program for librarians as well as that afforded instructors. The existence of a sabbatical leave program would encourage further study and a concern for broadening professional expertise.

> "The explosion of knowledge in general and of the information in particular make it mandatory for those who have chosen the profession of information and knowledge gathering, classifying and disseminating, to have the opportunity to keep up with the changing environment of their profession."[3]

Such a sabbatical program would give librarians an opportunity to learn new skills, new subjects, and gain a wider and more current knowledge of information theory and its control. Sabbaticals are designed for the improvement of staff members, which in turn, results in increased service to the institution. What college or university could not affordthe opportunity to improve the services renderd by its staff?

Footnotes

[1] Carter Victor Good, Dictionary of Education (New York, 1965).

[2] H. L. Emerson, "Sabbatical Leave Program: Why Not Try?" Wilson Library Bulletin (December 1968): 367-70.

[3] William H. Jesse and Ann E. Mitchell, "Professional Staff Opportunities for Study and Research," College and Research Libraries (March 1968): 87-93.

[4] Ibid., p. 368-9.

[5] Raymond C. Gibson, The Challenge of Leadership in Higher Education (Dubuque, Iowa, 1964), p. 158-59.

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WELFARE AND ECONOMIC BENEFITS

Introduction

The subject of welfare and economic benefits as they apply to the work environment are understandably of "priority concern" not only for the new staff member, but for the staff member having the most seniority. Welfare and economic benefits as used in this section of the Handbook include: Life Insurance, Health (Hospital and Medical) Insruance, and Retirement Plans.

In any job enumeration these items are for many more important than the salary itself. Although the LRC director has little say in these areas, one's expertise and knowledge of life, health, and retirement plan offerings are indispensable. Frequent questions and situations pertinent to institutional policy coverage need clarification and often interpretation to staff members.

The first Paper in this section deals with life insurance and retirement plans, while the other addresses itself to the subject of health (hospital and medical) insurance.

Life Insurance and Retirement Plans

Pat Washington

Life Insurance

Definitions

Life insurance is a risk-sharing plan which enables an individual to cover the financial loss experienced by his dependents at his death.

It is about the cheapest low-risk way you can obtain significant financial protection immediately. Even though you have just paid a first premium on a $20,000 policy, for example, your family would receive the full $20,000 if you were to die.

People are often confused when selecting a life insurance policy plan. This confusion is understandable since there are four basic types - term, straight, whole life, and endowment. There are variations within these four basic types. Likewise policies that are combinations of these basic types exist. There is also the problem of choosing the type according to a family's needs. An explanation of various types of insurance policies available include:

"1) Whole life insurance, also called 'cash value' insurance, builds up some savings while providing full coverage in the amount of the face value. The face value is the amount payable at the death of the insured. It includes both the protection and the savings (cash surrender)value of the policy.

2) Limited-payment life plans require premium payments for a specified number of years only, at which time your coverage continues even though you stop paying premiums.

3) Straight life (or ordinary life) plans require payments for life. Premiums remain the same as when you purchase any whole life policy. The older you are when you buy new policies, the more they will cost.

4) Term insurance builds up no cash value and it terminates after a specified lenth of time- typically, five or ten years. Term insurance is less expensive than cash value insurance bought at the same age, and costs of buying a new plan increase significantly with your age. Benefits are paid to your beneficiary when you die....You might be required to take a physical exam to buy a new term policy, unless it is a renewable policy.

5) In endowment insurance, benefits are paid to you, the insured, if you are living on the maturity date stated in the policy. If you die before that time, full proceeds go to your named beneficiary.

> 6) Annuity contract is not really life insurance, but an arrangement through which you can be guaranteed an income for a specified period of time - for a number of years, or for life. Variations of annuity contracts can include regular payments to a named beneficiary or even to your estate if you should die before the plan runs out."[1]

How to Choose the Best Companies

The best advice anyone can give is to shop around before buying any insurance.

> "Unlike most things purchased the best life insurance policy usually is the cheapest. The net cost of carrying insurance in any company depends on several factors, such as the company's care in choosing suitable high grade investments, selection of good mortality risks, and so on. Efficiency in performing these functions is reflected not only in low cost life insurance but also in financial safety."[2]

The various factors determining the "cost of insurance" to its policy holders are the following:

> "1) The operating expenses of an insurance company are in effect, paid by its policyholders, therefore, from the policyholder's point of view economical administration is desirable. In a well managed company administrative expenses are low, thus enabling that company to provide insurance at a relatively low cost to the policy holders.
>
> 2) The cost of an insurance policy depends not only on the efficiency of the company's management but also on the size and age of the company. Small or recently formed companies usually will have greater expenses than older or larger organizations, due in part to the expense of organization, lack of experience of the management, and the relatively high overhead per $1000 of insurance in force for the newer and smaller insurance companies.
>
> 3) Another important expense item is the percentage of new premium income that is spent in acquiring new business. A recently formed company will try to grow rapidly in order to reduce the overhead per $1000 of insurance and may therefore pay its agents a proportionately large amount of money for obtaining new policyholders; a well establihsed company will spend a much

smaller amount for this purpose.

4) The death rates among a company's policyholders also affect the cost of insurance to the surviving policyholders. If the mortality among a company's policyholders is excessive, the increased cost of insurance ordinarily will be met by reducing dividends on existing policies or by increasing the premium rates of policies issued in the future.

5) Because the people who buy insurance usually are comparatively young most of the policyholders of a newly founded insurance company will be in the younger age brackets. A new company, therefore, often will have a more favorable mortality experience than older companies, many of whose policyholders may have reached relatively advanced ages....

6) The yield that a company receives on its investments is one of the most important factors determining the net cost of insurance with that company. The reserve basis, that is, the rate of interest that a company assumes (for the computation of premiums and reserves) that its investments will earn, is important in determining the stability of the company."[3]

How to Get the Most Out of Your Life Insurance

You can use your life insurance as a savings plan.

"Although life insurance is not a savings account, it can be a basic part of your family thrift plan. If you buy an endowment policy at age 40 for an annual cost of about $455, you can accumulate $10,000 in twenty years. (This is the cost of a typical policy of this type and size, with no dividends payable.) During those 20 years, you'll have $10,000 face value protection for your family.

For broader family protection while you build up savings, you can use any of the other policy plans, except term insurance. A straight life policy, for instance, bought at age 40 with the same annual cost of about $455 as the $10,000 endowment example would give approximately $17,00 of insurance protection. At the end of twenty years, there would be a cash value of some $6,600.

The reason you get more insurance for the same price with straight life than you do with an endowment plan is that the cash value piles up faster with endowments. At the end of 20 years you're done paying and you collect the $10,000 outright. With straight life, you could take the $6,600 cash value at that time (or earlier), giving up the insurance coverage; or you could continue to pay premiums every year to maintain the insurance, as well as expand your cash value.

Another savings element in certain life insurance policies, called participating policies, is the accumulation of dividends, which is in fact a refund of part of the premium the company does not need at the end of the year. Rather than take them in cash each year, you can leave your dividends with the company to buy additional insurance - or to earn interest, currently from 4 to 5%.

Another way to use it is for emergency loans. After the second or third year with cash value policies, you have at hand an emergency fund which can be taken either as a loan or withdrawn in full, if you no longer want the policy protection (the cash value serves as collateral so you can borrow from the funds of the company). This loan feature can be a great help in a financial emergency, such as paying hospital or college bills, retiring a mortage, supplementing a family business, or providing retirement income.

The interest rate charged on life insurance loans is usually five or six percent, depending upon the policy; terms are lenient. There are no qualifications or credit restrictions. You can borrow almost the full cash value at will. You need not pay back the loan amount, although you must keep up interest payments. However, your family's protection is reduced by the amount of loan (plus interest) you have outstanding, so in most cases it's important to be punctual about paying back the money."[4]

"Two kinds of disability benefits can be provided by your regular life insurance policy simply by adding in special clauses. One is a plan to pay all premiums in case you become totally and permanently disabled. (That means total disability lasting six months or longer.) Typical costs for a man range from 35 cents per $1,000 policy on a straight life policy bought at age 21, to $8 per $1,000 on a retirement policy bought at age 55.

The second kind of disability coverage pays a monthly income(usually $10 per $1,000 face value) in case of permanent disability. This monthly income plan costs more, but is relatively inexpensive for long term cases."[5]

What Is In Your Life Insurance Policy?

Read your policy very carefully, and know its benefits and restrictions. In Appendix A are questions, which when answered, will help you know what is in your present policy or one you may purchase in the future.

If you already have a life insurance policy, it may be an expensive mistake to switch, even if you go from a high cost to a low cost policy. Cash-values and dividends get larger as the policy gets older. So, once the policy is purchased, in most cases it pays to keep it, rather than drop it and buy coverage from another company.

Group Life Insurance

Many libraries provide for their employees what is commonly called group life insurance. Group life insurance is a method through which low-cost insurance may be bought by belonging to a group of people covered by a master policy or contract. Group insurance is usually obtained through an employer. The insured group is formed generally when there are 25 or more employees. However, some companies may allow groups with only five persons to become insured.

Each employee covered by the plan receives a certificate or policy which state precisely the amount of his insurance, the name of the beneficiary whom he selected, and a summary of the conditions under which the policy is administered.

> "Group insurance is often also offered under plans administered by unions. Sometimes the group insurance plans are administered jointly by the unions and the employers. Professional societies or employee associations also often make available group insurance to their members. Even groups with member not related through employment or occupation may be covered. Thus, the members of savings and investment groups may also be covered under

group insurance."[6]

Group insurance plans are usually term plans and are, for this reason, low in cost. Term insurance obtained under a group plan is lower in cost than when bought individually, becuase the employer, for example, doesthe administrative work which the life company would ordinarily have to do. The employer collects the premiums through deductions from the employees wages (with their consent). The employer also does the bookkeeping, clerical details and maintenance of records necessary to administer the plans. This is to save the life insurance company the expenses for that work so that lower premium rates are made possible. Often the employer pays a portion of the premiums, and he may even pay the entire cost.

> "In joining a group plan, a medical examination is often not required. Large employers, however, usually require that a medical examination be taken prior to becoming employed. The purpose of such medical examinations is to assure the employer that prospective employees have no communicable diseases which they could pass on to other employees within the company. The employer also wants to know whether the person being examined has medical problems which may interfere later on with the work to be done on the job. This medical examination given by the company, also serves as an examination for the insurance plan.
>
> Group insurance sold on the basis of such a medical examination can be lower in cost than those plans which do not require an examination....since the health of the members of the group can be expected to be better on the average. Some companies which pay a large proportion or all of the insurance premiums, are so closely tied to the insurance company that they will refuse employment to the person who does not pass the medical examination satisfactorily. To maintain the premium rates of the insurance plan at a minimum, the life company may stipulate that only persons of good health can be covered under the plan. Some companies have no provision for employing persons who cannot be covered by the group insurance plan, and they will, therefore, not admit employees who are not in

satisfactory health."[7]

Many group life plans provide for coverage on the lives of dependents of group members; many also extend employees group protection after retirement, usually in reduced amounts. One recent development in the area of group life insurance concerns survivor benefits. Where most group life insurance provides a lump sum amount of insurance proceeds which may or may not be applied under various settlement options, plans with survivor benefits are designed to meet continuing family needs. Benefits are normally described in terms of a continuing monthly payment of the surviving spouse in an amount related to the income of the employee. The period of payment is frequently related to the employee's period of service with the employer. Payments may extend for life or to the age at which Social Security retirement benefits become payable, but cease on remarriage. Contingent benefits to dependent children in the event of the spouse's death are also available. The initial value of these survivor benefits could range from three to ten or more times an employee's annual salary.

During an Institute field trip to Forest Park Community College and other community colleges in St. Louis, the writer discovered The Junior College District Insurance Program which consists of the following units (participation in any or all of the units is optional):

> "1) Life insurance for the employee: the amount and costs depend upon the age and salary bracket of the employee.
>
> 2) Life insurance for employee's dependents.
>
> The Junior College District participates by paying a portion of the costs of all the above programs except life insurance for dependents and accidental death of the employee. Employee costs for the above programs are handled

by monthly payroll deductions."[8]

In conclusion, before buying any type of insurance, whether you are an employer or family man(woman) decide what type of insurance will best fit the needs of your family or employees; shop around for the best company that will give you the most for your money, and understand fully the type of insurance policy you have obtained.

Many companies and libraries provide group life insurance for their employees. Although all group life insurance plans have similar features, the type of group life insurance plan an institution may obtain can very.

Retirement

The age at which an employee may retire, the number of years service required to qualify for retirement, or both, are normally provided in a pension plan. Normal retirement age for a plan is generally determined on the basis of the nature and responsibilites of the work. The most frequent stipulated retirement age is 65, coinciding with the federal Social Security program , but frequently women are given a younger retirement age than men.

> "The importance of normal retirement age in determining cost is illustrated by the fact that retirement at age 60 costs approximately 50% more per dollar of annual benefits than retirement at age 65.
>
> Many plans provide the flexibility of optional deferred or early retirement. 'Discretionary' retirement occurs if the employee has an optiont to continue working after normal retirement age, provided he is physically and mentally capable. 'Compulsory' retirement requires management approval for continuation of employment beyond normal retirement age. If no exceptions to normal retirement

> age are permitted, retirement is 'automatic.' Service beyond normal retirement age may or may not be recognized in determining the pension benefit. Benefit payments may begin at the normal retirement date, be postponed without increase until actual retirement, or be made larger, at actual retirement, than what they would have been at normal retirement either by crediting the additional years of service or by an increase which recognizes the longer period of accumulation and the shorter period during which the benefits will be paid."[9]

There are advantages and disadvantages of flexible and mandatory retirement, and I have outlined the advantages and disadvantages of both below.[10]

Advantages

Flexible Retirement	Mandatory Retirement
Retain good employees	Orderly method of retirement
Permits individual treatment	No discrimination
Employees in favor of	Ease of administration
Persons do not age at same rate	More opportunities for advancement
Beneficial influence on economy of country	Employee anticipates and tends to plan for retirement
Lessens hardship for employees who might otherwise retire on inadequate benefits	Fewer accidents
	Lower disability benefits costs

Disadvantages

Difficulty in retiring unsatisfactory employees	Loss of good employees
Lack of criteria for determining whether employee is capable of performing task satisfactorily	Inflexibility of policy
Employee dissatisfaction because some retained and others retired	Difficulty of explaining policy to employees
	Preference of many employees to continue working

> "Early retirement is often permitted, usually within a specified number of years before normal retirement date, after a specificed number of years of service, or both. Consent of the employer may or may not be a requirement. For example, a plan which provides for normal retirement at age 65 may provide for early retirement at (1) age 55 and 10 years service with company consent, or (2) age 60 and 10 year's service at employee's election. With a few exceptions, benefits are reduced in cases of early retirement to recognize the reduction in contributions,

> the shorter accumulation period, and the expectation of a longer retirement life. Some plans provide additional benefits until the employee is eligible for Social Security benefits if the early retirement is requested by or approved by the employer."[11]

Some Retirement Plans and Benefits

Old Age Survivors and Disability Insurance is often referred to as OASI and is concerned with the payment of benefits to (1) employees who retire, (2) dependents of employees who are disabled, retired, or deceased, and (3) employees who become disabled before reaching retirement age.

> "Employers and employees make equal contributions to the premiums for this insurance. These premiums are set by Federal legislation as a certain percentage of 'covered wages.' Both the percentage and the amount of wages 'covered' are frequently changed by such Federal legislation."[12]

Benefit formulas are generally tailored to meet the requirements of a particular employer or industry. There are many variations in formula provisions. In terms of benefit structure, plans may be classified as money purchase plans, fixed benefit plans, and variable income plans.

> "Money purchase plans, which are infrequently used, provide for fixed contributions (usually a percentage of annual compensation) to purchase retirement pensions. As the employee approaches retirement, the benefits purchased by a year's contribution become smaller because of the shorter period before retirement during which the contribution will earn income.
>
> Benefits under fixed benefit plans are determined under three types of formulas: unit percentage, flat-sum, and flat-sum-times-years-of-service. Unit-percentage formulas are a percentage rate times a compensation base times years of service. The compensation base may be the career actual earnings(each year's compensation is the base

for benefits for that year's service), average annual earnings for a specified number of years having the highest earnings, or average annual earnings for a specified period of years prior to retirement. For example, one contributory plan provides annual benefits of 1% of each year's compensation up to $4,800 (the maximum earnings covered by Social Secutiry) and 2% of the amount over $4,000 for each year of coverage. In another plan, benefits are 1 1/4% of the average annual compensation in the five highest consecutive years of the ten years preceding retirement, times years of service (not exceeding 35).

Flat sum benefits are found principally in union-negotiated plans. One plan provides $510 per year, subject to 20 year's service in the industry. Another provides $24 per year for each year of service.

Variable income plans, a development of recent years, are generally supplemental to fixed benefit plans. Contributions are normally determined as under a standard type of plan. In the case of equity or variable annuity plans, the contributions are invested in an equity fund and the investment experience of the fund, as to both changes in market value and income rate, is passed on to the employee, both before and after the employee's retirement, in determining benefit payments. Variable income benefits may also be based on changes in the cost-of-living index.

Many plans use combinations of the various methods of computing benefits or may include other features such as maximum and minimum benefits, maximum periods of creditable service, and offset of Social Security benefits. Offset of Social Security benefits may be indirect by having a lower scale of benefits based on earnings covered by Social Security. Minimum benefits may be based on a flat dollar annual amount, a minimum percentage of compensation, or a combination of these. Maximum benefits may be related to benefit dollars, maximum annual earnings limitations, or percentage of compensation. The current trend appears to be toward higher amounts for both maximum and minimum benefits."[13]

Appendix A

QUESTIONNAIRE

1. What insurance company issued the policy?____________________

2. What type policy is it?____________________

3. What is the face value?____________________

4. What is the annual premium if paid annually?____________
   " " " " " " " semi-annually?____________
   " " " " " " " quarterly?____________
   " " " " " " " monthly?____________

5. Who is the Beneficiary?____________________
   Who is the contingent beneficiary (the person who receives the policy at the death of the insured if the first beneficiary is deceased?____________________

6. How long is the grace period?____________________

7. If the premium is unpaid at the end of the grace period, does this policy automatically lapse?____________________

8. May the insured reinstate the policy if he has let it lapse?________

9. When does the policy become incontestable (during the time the policy is contestable, the company can still be released from the policy if it is discovered that false statements of a material nature were made in the application for insurance)?____________

10. Is there an annual dividend on the policy?________If so, what will be the anticipated annual dividend this year?____________

11. If the policy pays dividends, what choices do you have as to how they will be used?____________________
    ____

12. How soon after issue may a policy loan be made?____________

13. What rate of interest is charged on money borrowed from the policy?
    ____

14. What is the cash value or loan value of this policy in its fifth year?__________In its tenth year?__________In its fifteenth year?__________In its twentieth year?__________.

15. What non-forfeiture provisions are available if the policy is allowed to lapse?____________________

16. May this policy be converted to any other type policy?____________

17. What settlement options does this policy have?____________________

18. Does it include a provision for waiver of premium in event of disability?_____________If so, what is the additional premium charge for this provision?_______________________________________

19. If this is a term policy, is it guaranteed renewable?_____________

20. Other pertinent information about this policy:____________________
____
____

Footnotes

[1] "How to Get the Most Out of Your Life Insurance," *Better Homes and Gardens* Vol. 51, No. 9 (September 1973): 6.

[2] Wilfred Kelsey and Authur C. Daniel, "How to Choose the Best Companies," *Handbook of Life Insurance* (New York: Institute of Life Insurance), p. 17.

[3] *Ibid.*

[4] "How to Get the Most Out of Life Insurance," p. 6.

[5] *Ibid.*, p. 7.

[6] David W. Gregg, *Group Life Insurance, An Analysis of Concepts, Contracts, Costs, and Company Practices.* (Homewood, Ill.: Richard D. Irwin, Inc.), p. 166.

[7] *Ibid.*

[8] *Faculty Handbook*, Forest Park Community College, p. 19.

[9] Haskins and Sells, *The Pension System in the United States*, 1964, p. 28.

[10] *Ibid.*, p. 21.

[11] *Ibid.*, p. 28.

[12] *Academic Handbook*, Indiana University, Group Life Insurance, p. 50.

[13] Haskins and Sells, p. 27.

Health (Hospital and Medical) Insurance

Pat Keith

The Nature and Origins of Health Insurance

"The history of health insurance in the United States spans more than a century. It began in 1847 with the introduction of a very restricted sickness insurance policy. The first general accident policy was issued by an insurance company in 1864. It covered accidents of every description, except injuries arising from disease, surgical operation, suicide and certain other specified conditions.

By the turn of the century, some 47 health insurers were issuing accident insurance. These were casualty insurance companies, or companies offering only accident or health benefits. Shortly before World War I several life insurance companies entered this field.

In 1929, a group of school teachers banded together to form an arrangement with Baylor Hospital in Dallas, Texas, for the provision of hospital room and board and specified ancillary services at a predetermined monthly cost to the group. Elsewhere other hospitals adopted similar arrangements in response to the deepening effect of the Depression in which these institutions faced empty beds and declining revenues, and people found paying for health care increasingly difficult. Out of this movement emerged the modern community plans, such as Blue Cross and Blue Shield.

During World War II, the freezing of wages spurred the growth of various fringe benefits for employees, including group health insurance. When the war ended, a pattern had been established. Group health insurance had become a standard health and welfare benefit under collective bargaining.

Individual insurance, too, received impetus during the war when wages were high and goods and commodities were rationed. Wage earners bought the protection then, partially because they were unable to purchase many manufactured items; only later did they realize the importance of their decision as costs of hospital confinement began their steep and continuing increase. In response to this growing demand, many more life insurance companies began to write health insurance.

In the years that followed, constant improvements and refinements were made in health insurance plans. Benefit

> levels were increased, and benefit periods were extended. Health services were covered fully. Increasing emphasis was placed on long-term coverage, and on providing protection for the physically handicapped.
>
> One of the outstanding developments of the postwar years was the introduction in 1949 of major medical expense insurance which extended protection to cover expenses that could be catastropic to a family. It was designed to provide benefits for all types of prescribed treatment, whether in or out of a hospital. Another significant innovation was the introduction of group long-term disability insurance, made available through employers, and designed to furnish an adequate substitute income for long periods during disability."[1]

Forms of Health Insurance

Health insurance is now available through a large number of various kinds of insuring organizations. These include insurance companies, local hospital and medical service plans, group medical practice plans, fraternal society plans, employer and labor union plans, college health plans, rural and consumer health cooperatives.

The majority of persons with health insurance come under group programs. Underwriting rules of insurance companies and state laws determine the eligibility of a group for such coverage. In general, group insurance is available to employee groups, members of professional or other associations, labor unions, and welfare or employee benefit associations.

The principal characteristics of group health insurance are:

> "1) Economy of cost to insured persons because many individuals can be insured under a single contract, with subsequent savings in sales and administrative expenses.
>
> 2) The group contract holder (i.e. the employer or employee association) usually pays a part or all of the premium.

> 3) The physical conditions of the insured person is generally not a factor of eligibility. The insurance company is concerned with evaluating the health of the group, not the individual, in terms of underwriting the plan. However, in order to offer the benefits of group insurance to very small groups of employees, some individual selection may be exercised in these cases.
>
> 4) The individual's coverage cannot be cancelled - unless he leaves the plan, or the group plan itself is terminated."[2]

A single master contract is generally issued to the policyholder - for example, the employer or trustees of a fund - with certificates or insurance provided each participating member. If benefits are extended to dependents of covered individuals they will also come under the contract. Specific group benefits may have to be adapted to the requirements of an employer's overall personnel program or the conditions of collective bargaining.

Most commonly the policyholder and the insurance company jointly administer the group plan.

> "The insurance company typically performs the principal administrative functions which include: benefit plan design; development of language for contracts, certificates and explanatory booklets; enrollment and record keeping; analysis of claims experience; processing and payment of claims; and continuing assistance in keeping participating members fully informed on coverage and benefits."[3]

Many persons are also insured under individual or family policies which are designed to accomodate two fundamental needs. First, they offer protection for people not employed in a group, and for those whose employers do not provide coverage. In addition, these policies can provide supplementary coverage when the health financing needs of a particular individual are not sufficiently met under a group plan.

Individual plans differ from group plans in several important repects. Under group insurance the level of benefits is fixed by the terms of the plan. Under an individual policy the applicant selects the benefits, and each person or family must be enrolled separately. Underwriting is done from an individual application, with age, sex and other factors being considered.

As indicated, group protection is terminated when a person leaves a group. Frequently, however, the master policy provides for conversion. Today the right to convert to an individual policy is a consistent feature of group plans.

Health Insurance Plans

The principle types of health insurance plans are: Service Plans, Indemnity Insurance, Major Medical Plan, Comprehensive, Disability Income Insurance, and Medicare for senior citizens.

Service plans provide for the actual care that an individual needs while in the hospital at an annual rate, sometimes through the plan's own physicians and medical center. Modern Service plans provide two types of expense benefits for a hospital confinement.

The first is a daily room and board benefit. This benefit pays the hospital room daily charges up to the daily limit stated in the policy, subject to a specified maximum period of confinement. Included is coverage for the room accomodation, food service, routine nursing care, and minor medical supplies.

> "An additional expense benefit pays for other charges. These may include laboratory tests and x-rays provided in the hospital, as well as anesthesia and its administration, drugs and medicines, use of the operating room, and local ambulance service. Frequently the maximum amount of this benefit is expressed as a multiple of the room and board daily benefit.
>
> Surgical expense insurance is usually offered in combination with service benefits. It helps pay the fee for surgery whether performed in the hospital, or in the doctor's office."[4]

Indemnity insurance pays specified dollar allowances on a daily, weekly or monthly basis for various medical and hospital service. The individual pays the balance of the expenses actually incurred. These benefits are designed to help pay hospital charges and may help meet additional family expenses during such confinement.

Major medical plans help pay the cost of hospital care, physicians, treatment and specialists' consultation and care, prescription drugs, private nursing, home health services, psychiatric care, diagnostic x-rays and radium therapy, physiotherapy, anesthesia, prosthetic devices, rehabilitation services and other forms of treatment related to serious illnesses.

> "Under major medical insurance, the company pays a physician's reasonable fee for necessary services. The policy may limit benefits for certain types of expenses, such as the cost of the hospital room and the surgeon's fee.
>
> The program of benefits under major medical insurance may be arranged in several ways:
>
> 1. A major medical plan may be superimposed on a basic hospital and surgical expenses policy. In this case, the deductible, or the amount which the insured pays before benefits commence, is usually substantial - $500 or higher - but not less than the benefits payable under the base plan.

> 2. Many major medical plans begin to pay only after the benefits of the basic plan have been exhausted and, in addition, a deductiable amount - frequently $100 - is applicable.
>
> 3. Basic hospital-surgical expense insurance and major medical may be combined into a single overall plan with a low deductible of $100 or less.
>
> The comprehensive plan combines hospital-surgical expense insurance and major medical into a single plan. The group comprehensive plan provides services directly from the plan's doctors at the plan's medical offices or hospitals within the area served by the plan. If emergency services are required while in another area, the plan will generally reimburse the individual for at least part of the payments made to other doctors or hospitals. Within the plan's area, only designated doctors and hospitals may be chosen."[5]

Disability income insurance provides regular weekly or monthly cash payments to insured individuals whose wages are interrupted by total or partial disability due to virtually any type of illness or accident. These benefits may be used by the family in any way - to pay day-to-day expenses during a period of disability, or other continuing expenses.

The benefit period for any one continuous disability may be short term or long term.

> "Individual policies may provide short term benefits up to two years. Short term group plans commonly pay benefits for 13, 26, and 52 weeks. Individual long term policies generally provide benefits for periods ranging anywhere from more than two years to age 65. For disabilities caused by accident, and, in a few policies, by sickness, benefits may be payable for life. Group long term disability insurance usually provides benefits for five years or longer. Under many such plans, benefits are payable to normal retirement date, generally age 65, and may be, in the case of disability due to accident, payable for life.
>
> Benfits are usually based on 50 to 60 per cent of earned income up to a specified maximum. Frequently the monthly benefit is reduced by the amount of other benefits contractually payable to the individual because of disability.

> The trend toward greater use of long term disability program reflects growing recognition by employer that there is a greater risk of disability than death among young workers."[6]

Since most retired persons are no longer covered under group plans, the enactment of Medicare under the Social Security Act in 1965 greatly changed the status of persons over 65 with respect of health care. Part A of Medicare includes hospital care, nursing home care, and home health services.

> "Hospitalization covers up to 90 days of hospital care for each 'spell of illness,' including semi-private room and board, x-rays, lab tests, etc., and ordinary nursing care. The patient pays the first $44 of hospital costs, and Medicare pays the full balance for up to 60 days of care, and all but $11 a day for the 60th through the 90th day of care. Nursing home benefits and other 'extended care' facilities provide up to 100 days of care. In addition, there is a lifetime reserve of 60 days of hospital care after the 90 days entitlement during a spell of illness is exhausted; the patient pays $22 a day for each of the 60 days used. Part B of Medicare, for which an individual pays $4.00 per month, covers 80 per cent of most doctor bills except for the first $50 in each calendar year."[7]

To provide full protection major medical insurance is usually combined with Medicare.

There are some things that all plans cover. Not all plans provide the benefits, and some plans provide very little, but all plans provide at least some benefits for:

Hospital room and board for surgical or medical care
Other hospital services (operating room, recovery room, etc.)
Surgical care as an inpatient or outpatient
Anesthetist services
Diagnostic x-rays and lab procedures as an inpatient or outpatient
Doctor's hospital visits
Maternity - normal and with complications
Radiation therapy
Psychiatric care
Emergency care

How to Buy Health Insurance

Many factors need to be taken into consideration when purchasing health insurance. A careful review of policy benefits, perhaps with an insurance representative, is a good first step. An employer should discuss questions concerning group health insurance plans with interested employees. It is next important to consider the measure of adequacy of protection:

"1) What provisions have been made against loss of personal income?

2) What hospital and medical services are covered under the provisions of the contract? For example, does the policy cover related hospital expenses, such as x-ray, lab tests, special nursing services and other extras? Out-patient diagnostic laboratory and x-ray services? Does it provide for physicians' services outside of a hospital?

3) What members of the family are covered?

4) What are the maximum benefit limits in terms of amount and length of time?

5) How do these benefits compare with the level of health care costs in the local community? Although costs are rising everywhere, the rate of rise differs from region to region. One can obtain information on hospital room and board rates from local hospitals or from an agent or broker. And the individual should discuss fees frankly with his physician.

6) What waiting periods, exclusions and limitations are in the policy?

7) What deductibles are involved?

8) Who has the right of renewal of the health insurance coverage - the policy holder or the insurance company?"[8]

In choosing an insurance company consider the establishment's reputation, nationally and within the community. A picture of the company, its accomplishments and scope of services, may be obtained by studying its annual reports to policy holders.

Any insurance company represented within the state by an agent or broker must be licensed by that state. Licensing serves as evidence that the company is complying with the laws and regulations of the state which are designed to protect policyholders. The State Insurance Department located in the state capital can confirm whether a company is licensed to do business in the state.

> "Price should be one[consideration], but not the most important factor in selecting a policy. The first consideration is whether the coverage suits the needs of an individual, family, or group. A policy with inadequate benefits may prove uneconomical in the long run.
>
> Policies with different companies are not identical, and this variation affects cost, reflecting inherent differences between companies in many aspects.
>
> Savings can be realized by selecting policies which feature higher deductibles, or have longer waiting periods before benefits begin. For example, the higher the deductible on a major medical policy, the lower the premium. And if the disability income policy has a 90 day waiting period instead of 30 to 60 days, the premium will be correspondingly lower. Here the policyholder should be certain that he has sufficient resources to absorb the cost of the deductible, or of the income lost during the waiting period."

An application for groupinsurance is completed by the employer. Except with very small groups, there are no questions about individual health, medical, or insurance history as are required in applying for an individual policy, because evidence of insurability is not generally required under a group contract. Where the individual is contributing to the cost, it is customary that he sign a request for the insurance and an authorization for payroll deduction.

Footnotes

[1] Modern Health Insurance (New York: Health Insurance Institute, 1969), p. 10-11.

[2] Ibid., p. 14

[3] Ibid., p. 15.

[4] Ibid., p. 22.

[5] Information to Consider in Choosing A Health Plan. (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Civil Service Commission, Bureau of Retirement, Insurance and Occupational Health, 1972), p. 6-7.

[6] Modern Health Insurance, p. 19-20.

[7] William C. Greenough and Francis P. King, "Economic Status of the Professional Group Insurance Plans - A Decade of Change," AAUP Bulletin Vol. 55, No. 1 (March 1969): 17.

[8] Modern Health Insurance, p. 43.

[9] Ibid., p. 45.

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STAFF RELATIONSHIPS

Staff Participation in Management and Staff Meetings

Michael Roseborough

Management

Introduction

The role that a staff has in the management of a library is basically a representation of staff members working as a group to support or recommend possible solutions of library problems to the library administrator. Participation is a means of communicating with the library administrator to indicate satisfaction or discontent with the library's policies. It is not a required process, only a suggested one. Therefore, it is difficult to ascertain how participative management works in every library situation, but in those libraries where it exists it has proven to be relatively successful. In any case, there has to be a positive attitude from both the administration and staff as regards interpersonal and professional relationships if the library's potential performance is to be fully realized.

Staff Relations with the Administration

"Every library has a goal to reach. Its major objective toward obtaining this goal is service to the patrons."[1] The administration in conjunction with the staff members that work in the various departments of a library collectively attempt to identify what type of service the patron wants and needs. Although the administrator is charged with determining what should be done about the patron's wants and needs, in many instances a personal relationship never exists between the two parties.

The existance of clearly defined channels of communication, both formal and informal with the administration in the management of the library can be of assistance to the administrator in making operational decisions. The staff acquires a perspective regarding patrons desires and needs that the administrator may not acquire, however unintentional. He should have enough confidence in his staff to rely on their input and judgment. It is understood that the administrator or director is the final authority in determining the affairs of the library. He is held responsible for the library's operations, its shortcomings, and its success. Decisions may not always meet with subordinate approval but they should be respected, and in return the administrator should welcome subordinates' suggestions.

Staff participation does not work in every library situation:

> "The critics see participation as an abdication of responsibility by the manager. They see it as an idea that will easily get out of control, waste time, lower efficiency, and weaken the effectiveness of management. The most severe opponents of participation consider it a manipulative device for deceiving employees. They view participatory management as a device to direct the participators into 'discovering' a solution to a management problem, a solution previously decided upon by management. This use makes the participators feel important when they may not actually be important."[2]

The factors that must be considered when determining the success or failure of staff participation in management are:

"1) How large is the library system?
2) What is the attitude of the administrator toward the staff members?
3) What is the attitude of the staff members toward the

> administrator?
> In any case, regardless of the size of the library, if the relationship between the staff and the administrator is negative, or vice-versa, there should be no active involvement of the staff toward managing the library."[3]

On the other hand, if the attitudes of both the staff and administrator are positive, each willing to accept one another's ideas, staff participation in managing the library will function successfully.

Staff Participants' Relations to Other Staff Members

Most ataff members participating in managing a library are appointed by the administrator. In other cases the participants elected by the other members of the staff. This committee is often composed of representatives of the various types of work, grades and services in the library.[4] It is the responsibility of these individuals to relate to other members of the staff what is happening in the administration informally, usually called the"grapevine system."

> "Characteristics of the grapevine are speed of transmission, freshness of news, and selectivity of information carried. It is a prime source of upward communication and conveys information, but also particularly ideas, opinions and attitudes - what people are thinking, and how they feel in relation to certain situations."[5]

> "The grapevine can be helpful in many cases, but can also be misleading, depending on the circumstances of persons relating the news to other members of the staff."[6]

It us up to the administrator to relate to other employees formally what is happening in the administration, often stating it in writing. Therefore, there can be no misinterpretation of the administration's statements and actions.

When considering staff participative management several questions are brought to mind as to who should participate. Professionals?

Non-professional? Should technical service personnel and custodians have representation? What about part-time workers? These questions cannot be easily answered. First, however, before answering any of these questions we must consider the type and size of the library. Is it an academic, public, or special library? Is the library large or small?

> "In attempting to deal with this problem we must decide if participative management is necessary. For example, a large academic or public library with 50 to 150 staff members, there is a need to have representatives participate informally with the administrator about policies of the library. But if a library is small, having about 2 to 10 staff members, the head of the library can deal with the individuals informally on a personal basis, rather than representatives, to discuss his decisions.[7]

The most important consideration is the staff relationship with one another, involving both positive and negative attitudes. One should determine what the relationships between professional and classified staff members actually are. Every staff member should have a positive attitude toward the people representing him in making suggestions to the administrator. Realizing that everyone thinks and reacts differently to situations, it should be clearly understood that the input and suggestions of these representatives are simply "fragmentary representation" of staff member's thoughts and feelings.

Amy Winslow, in her Wilson Library Bulletin article entitled, "Staff Participation in Management" writes:

> "Surely if staff members cannot cooperate with one another then there is no need to have the staff participative management in the administration. Only with the acceptance of one another can even a partial success be accomplished. Staff members in general are not experienced in working together as a group. This skill must be learned and there must be a constant effort to improve communications."[8]

> "In dealing with who should participate, most libraries developing staff participation programs which have the traditional pyramidal organizational structure choose staff members from all levels, i.e., professionals, paraprofessionals and technical workers. By including representatives from all positions or levels, a library system can be developed which gives everyone an opportunity to participate in the management of the library. Usually pages and part-time employees are excluded from participation for various reasons, mainly because these positions are not concerned with what is happening in the administration. Most pages [or student assistants] are high school or college students and do not get involved because their jobs are only temporary. But if they would like to attend the informal meetings, they should be allowed to do so."[9]

Effectiveness of Staff Participation in Management

"Successful communication" may be the appropriate word for effective staff participation in management. It is the achievement of progressive relationships with the administration dealing with improving programs, policies, methods and procedures of the library.

> "The diffusion of policy-making to the operating levels is almost always reflected in an emphasis on group coordination at the policy making level. This level may be viewed as possessing the supreme co-ordinating authority and as the central nervous system of the total organization, exercising overall coordination and control. Group discussion and group decisions provide the only workable solution to the problems of size, complexity and interdependence."[10]

Conclusion

The involvement in participative management by the staff is nothing new in most libraries. The impact will be felt whether this involvement is successful or not. Nonetheless it will be a challenging experience for both the staff and administrator. There are several advantages to be gained from staff participation in management. However, we must keep in mind the basic gain to be achieved through understanding and communication.

Staff Meetings

Philosophy

> "Staff meetings are a means of communications through which individuals, groups, or both, facilitate the free exchange of information and ideas. It is a way of grasping a variety of opinions and experiences to use as vehicles for improving morale by the distribution of praise for work done, or by enabling various levels of staff to participate in helping to make decisions."[11]

Regardless of the size of the library, there will always be a need for staff members to communicate with one another to solve the various problems of the library.

Functions

> "The typical staff meeting has a two fold purpose, to facilitate the general administration of the library, and to improve the librarians in service. They furnish a means of introducing new plans and procedures before they go into effect."[12]

It also gives staff members, professionals, non-professionals, library assistants and pages a chance to express their ideas on matter of policy, professional problems, new trends and techniques. There is a sense of good staff morale and common identity when members are allowed to give their points of view freely. The amount of things that can be accomplished in a meeting depends on the attitudes of the individuals participating.

Procedures

There are several types of staff meetings, for example, departmental, branch, grievance, etc.

> "Most members of a committee are asked to represent their particular department by the administrator. In other cases they are elected by other members of the staff. Usually meetings are held not less than once a month or whenever nedessary. The officers consist of a chairman and a secretary. Minutes are kept for official purposes as well as to acquaint those who were not in attendance, with the plans and decisions agreed upon at the meeting. The time and scheduling of meetings is dependent upon the administrative policy of the library and the situation of the library. In most cases Robert's Rules of Order govern the conduct of the meetings."[13]

Conclusion

Communication between staff members is of great importance to the quality and efficiency of the library. Staff meetings may serve as an effective forum for free exchange of ideas. It is a way of obtaining objectives with the participation of every staff member's input.

Footnotes

[1] American Library Association, Personnel Organization and Procedure (Chicago: American Library Association, 1968), p. 20.

[2] Henry R. Stewart, Staff Participation in the Management of College Libraries and Its Relationship to Library Performance Characteristics (Bloomington, Ind.: Indiana University, 1972), p. 15-16.

[3] Richard Emery, "Staff Communications: A Necessary Activity," Library World (Dec. 1970):175.

[4] Jane G. Flener, "Staff Participation in Management in Large University Libraries," College and Research Libraries (July 1973): 276.

[5] Richard Emery, p. 176.

[6] Ibid., p. 176.

[7] Richard DeGennaro, "Participative Management or Unionization?" College and Research Libraries (May 1972): 174.

[8] Jane G. Flener, p. 276.

[9] Ibid., p. 277.

[10] Amy Winslow, "Staff Participation in Management," Wilson Library Bulletin (April 1953).

[11] Richard Emery, p. 176.

[12] Guy R. Lyle, The Administration of the College Library (New York: H. W. Wilson, 1945), p. 302.

[13] Ibid.

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Staff Associations and Staff Complaints or Grievances

Earl Bean

Introduction

There is a growing awareness among a significant segment of the library profession that libraries are becoming increasingly larger in organizational structure while concommitantly becoming more complex to administer. The myriad problems brought on by the demands for better services and new developments in the areas of information storage and retrieval frequently impede the flow of necessary and vital communication not only from the top of the administrative hierarchy down to lower supportive levels but also from the lowest organizational level to the top. The seeds of such an impedimental harvest often reap grim consequences of untold expense, loss of valuable time, and demoralizing confusion.

In the midst of this organizational milieu is a profession which is itself witnessing greater diversity and specialization. Add to these troubles staff personnel who want and have a need to know what is going on, clamoring for recognition of the contributions they can make and havingmore than simply remuneration in mind, The intent of this discussion is the realization that there is an urgent need for a vehicle which can be utilized to help increase organizational efficiency in libraries. At the same time, recognizing that a channel should exist through which workers can make their feelings known. This report will concern itself with one such vehicle, the STAFF ASSOCIATION.

It has been strongly suggested that the staff association is one time tested way by which non-administrative staff may make significant input into library operations. This report will attempt to highlight some of the findings of an investigation into the how and why of staff associations. An attempt will be made to offer insight into the typical structure and operation of such associations, in the event that one may wish to assist in developing an association in a library where there is none or to learn some of the rudiments of staff associations where they already exist.

This report begins with the basic assumption that although the size of the library or learning resources center staff will vary with the size of the parent institution, there is somewhat of an ideal staff size which would warrant the development of a staff association. The suggestion is that this size exists on a continuum between a minimum and a maximum number of persons necessary to make the existence of a staff association both desirable and feasible.

Another point which must be stressed at the beginning is of the many types of libraries in existence, attention is focused on only a few of these, namely academic libraries, public libraries, and community college libraries or learning resources centers. However, this does not mean that what is reported and suggested for the institutions above could not just as well apply to many other types of libraries. Applicability may be implied if their staff size lies between the minimum and maximum limits.

Types of Staff Associations

The literature tends to reflect two basic types of staff associations.

One is the large professional organizations such as the American Library Association or the various state organizations, such as the Indiana Library Association. The other type, the focal point of this report, is the staff association within a particular library. In the former, professional librarians and librarians in management generally hold membership. While in the latter, no professional staff at the management level is usually allowed to join, for obvious reasons of conflict of interest or perhaps as a safeguard against the exertion of authority. But, why do staff associations exist? What do they attempt to accomplish?

Purposes - Goals - Objectives

The answers to such questions as the previous two may be obtained from an investigation of some staff associations presently in existence. There tend to be threads of commonality generally stated in their purposes, their goals or their objectives. Harmond Boyd tells about the three basic puspoees of the Vigo County (Indiana) Public Library Staff Association:

> "1. To work for the greater welfare of the V.C.P.L. System.
> 2. To raise the professional standards of the staff.
> 3. To promote the mutual understanding and welfare of the entire staff."[1]

Claire Conner of the Indianapolis Marion County Public Library reports that her staff association consitution states the purpose of the association is "to advance the interest of the library and to promote professional and social relations and the economic welfare of the staff."[2]

To these notions expressed above, Fran Klihger from the Evansville-Vandenburgh County Public Library adds, "to give members an opportunity to offer suggestions on library policy."[3] Ethel Gantz of South Bend Public informs us that the central purpose of her association is "to promote the overall welfare and good fellowship among the staff."[4]

Thus from these few typical examples it appears that the cornerstones of staff associations are welfare of members, mutual understanding among members and the desire to make significant input as regards library policy. The ALA Organization Manual hints at a broader purpose of staff associations when it states:

> "Staff organizations provide an excellent opportunity for self expression and leadership and are a channel for the interchange of opinions. They are a means of making the ideas and the interests of the staff known to the administration and of fostering harmonious relationships and effective cooperation between staff and administration."[5]

Organizational Structure of Staff Associations

Another significant aspect of staff association is organizational structure. Some of the basic aspects of structure are governing body, supportive governing bodies, and the official document for guiding the activities of the organization. Most of the staff associations identified in the literature were governed by an executive board. This board, in most instances, consisted of a president, vice-president, secretary, treasurer, and often a member-at-large. Tom Krasean of Indiana State Library writes about the structure and duties of his staff association's board and these duties were typical of similar boards for other associations.

Krasean reports that:

> "The duty of the Executive Board is to appoint all standing committees annually, review the expenditures and anticipate

> income needs of the association, to establish necesseary dues schedule, and to have general management of the association."[6]

The term of office for the Executive Board is generally one year. The members are elected to their positions by the voting members of the staff association. Helping the board to perform its functions are a number of standing committees.

At East Chicago Public Library, Margaret Jones' staff association has typical standing committees. She tells of:

1) The Social Committee
2) The Programming Committee
3) The Nominating Committee
4) The Salary and Employee Benefit Committee
5) The Grievance Committee[7]

There could be more standing committees depending on the size of the staff and the structure of the organization. For example, Claire Connor's association also has two more committees beside the ones listed above. They are:

6) A Publications Committee
7) An Auditing Committee

Connor tends to sum up the importance of all such committees when she claims: "These committees....are the lifelines - the workers, the idea people - 'willing horses' of our staff association."[8] These Executive Boards and standing committees have been engaged in a host of association activities which have been beneficial to both the staff and to the libraries of which they are a part.

Activities of Staff Associations

With the purposes, goals or objectives serving as guidelines one association:

> "Sent student assistants to work shops, conducted tours of entire facilities for the staff, provided financial help so that more members could attend ILA, and published a monthly news bulletin where thru the 'Steam Valve' employees can express their feelings by submitting unsigned letters."[9]

The South Bend Public Library's staff association has featured at its staff meetings:

> "Travel talks by fellow employees, talks by community leaders, book reviews, style shows and theatre parties. The Executive Board sponsors an annual May breakfast. The staff association holds summer picnics for employees and their families. The Social Committee plans retiree parties. And the Flowers and Gift Committee purchases cards, flowers and gifts for those who are ill or leaving, as well as memorials in case of bereavement."[10]

The Indianapolis-Marion County Public Library staff association has initiated such outstanding innovations as a loan fund from which employees can borrow in times of emergency at either no interest or a very small interest. They have sent representatives to the ALA conventions, but perhaps the most significant activity initiated is Library Day. Every two years, the entire system is closed to the public on this day. Then the results of extensive planning begins to unfold and staff members engage themselves in round tables, open discussions, forums, panels and a host of other events especially planned for this day.[11]

These few examples are quite typical of the kinds of activities that staff associations plan for their members. It would seem, however, that the enthusiasm of the members would have a great deal to do with just how active these associations really are. Thus the next section will address itself to staff association membership. There are interesting ways by which some of the associations handle this area.

Membership of Staff Associations

It was previously mentioned that a constitution with its various by-laws is the official document by which staff associations are generally governed. Thus the requirements for eligibility for membership are stipulated in the by-laws. Harmon Boyd reports that in his library "the membership is open to all full-time members of the staff with the exception of the director, and his assistant-director."[12] Membership in the staff association at Indianapolis-Marion County Public Library is "open for anyone who wants to join." The reason for this, according to Claire Connor, is that:

> "We need all and want all the members we can get. It is vital to work together for the betterment of our library system and for the improvement of our position in the community. We need to pick the brains and use the hands of all our associates."[13]

At Evansville-Vanderburgh County Public Library if you have worked there for 30 days, whether part-time or full-time, you are eligible to joint the staff association, reports Fran Klinger.[14] Jerry Henry of Kokomo Public Library relates that membership in that library's staff association is not compulsory, but those who do not join are eliminated from association benefits.[15] Tom Krasean reveals that at Indiana State Library membership is open to all employees of the library with dues prorated according to salary and payable before fiscal July 1.

Thus it appears that membership in the different staff associations follow different guidelines. No two associations may treat the question of membership in the same way. But Charles Seal sounds a note of caution concerning this topic. In his article "Lets Take a

Look at our Staff Associations," Seal states that"only a small percentage of total eligible members usually belong to staff associations."[17] Seal does not attribute this lack of participation to apathy but suggests that the "real problem is the diversity of the members themselves."[18] Seal continues by saying:

> "The library is division oriented (professional vs non-professional) and we find many people doing different jobs for different amounts of remuneration because they have different educational backgrounds. The problem can be overcome not by assuming that we are a unified group - which we are not - but by working together for the benefit of all members. Each member of the association is as important as any other. 'Library staff member is the only title."[19]

Seal then makes a very profound observation in concluding that;

> "The end purpose or final goal of a good staff association has to be improvement of service to the user. No matter what our job in the library, it is directed toward the user. We should always strive to improve that service."[20]

Staff Association Meetings

The important elements of meetings are when, where, and how long. Another contingency may be how active a particular association might be. Generally the constitutional by-laws provide for the handling of the question of meetings. If not, then these essential elements must be worked out through cooperation and coordination between the staff and the administration. Thus no further treatment of this area is accomplished in this report.

Staff Associations andTheir Relationship to the Administration

The degree to which management accepts and cooperates with staff associations will also have a profound effect on whether such associations are successful or not. A few of the association presidents did address themselves to this topic in their reports about their groups. In some instances there was quite a great deal of enthusiasm for staff associations coming from management. In some cases they had very little effect. However, one association president responded as follows:

> "Administrations should be aware that staff associations generally feel a commitment not only to our members, but to every employee of the library. We are interested in making the library a better place to work with a friendly staff atmosphere, and also to improving the service to the public. We are pleased to cooperate with others in our library who seek similar goals, such as the staff council, the director, and the library board."[21]

But Lawrence J. Downey captures the essence of what the relationship of associations to management should be when he maintains that, "Members of staff associations realize the value of the association keeping the channels of communication open and working between the employee and the administration and the library board."[22]

This last statement ends somewhat on the same theme expressed in opening remarks to this report, namely that the obstacles to good management and to providing good library services under the stress of today's demands can be overcome if management and staff can find an appropriate vehicle through which two-way communications can be made effective. It is imperative that administation and staff at all levels be able to solve this problem otherwise librarians and libraries will become and remain controllers and depositories of confusion, rather than be the collectors, disseminators, and storage stations of recorded information of which they have made claim.

Staff Complaints or Grievances

The manner in which employees are allowed to effectively express their complaints and the efficiency or inefficiency management exercises in handling these complaints can effect seriously staff morale. There is a scarcity of material written on the subject of staff complaints, particularly as it pertains to libraries. As such, this section of the report is based primarily on what little material could be found on grievance which could be subsequently adapted to staff complaints in libraries.

DEFINITION: "Any real or imagined feeling of personal injustice that an individual employee has concerning his employment relationship."

1. The grievance need not be legitimate to be a grievance.
2. This definition also encompasses the narrower definition of grievance as simply being a protest violation of the labor contract.
3. It includes feelings of injustice as they relate to the organization rules, policies and procedures.[23]

PROCEDURE: "The grievance procedure is the method through which a grievance is filed and adjudicated. This implies a series of steps the ultimate being arbitration."[24]

The grievance approach or the grievance machinery can be of two basic types. One approach is "legalistic" and the other is "clinical." "In the legal approach, the parties argue over who is right." But in the clinical approach, "the attempt to discover what is wrong is made." Anthony and Anthony further claim that "This is the most important step in grievance handling and probably the most difficult one to fully implement."[25] Another notion advanced is that there are three important elements in the grievance approach. The claim is that the grievance, the appeal and the review process is a purposeful three stage process.[26] According to the above author,Volkersz, in the early stages a grievance can most effectively be handled through meetings and conferences without a formally written charge. Then an appeal is made in writing when the individual feels that his grievance has not satisfactorily been resolved. "This appeal is usually made to a different agency than the one which heard the original grievance."[27] The next level is the final review. Then if still unresolved the grievance is submitted for arbitration. Volkersz maintains that when this procedure is properly designed it reduces the possibility of prejudice to wither party and consequently protects the interests of employee and employer.

One should recognize four broad areas where personal problems may occur and affect the performance of one's duties and/or his morale. These are:

> "1. Dissatisfaction relating to duties of the job.
> 2. Dissatisfaction with on-the-job personal relations with the supervisors, co-workers, or subordinates.
> 3. Dissatisfaction with university or library policies.
> 4. Personal problems occuring outside of the library."[28]

Anthony and Anthony suggest some "Do's" and "Don'ts" of grievance procedures:

> "Do's
>
> 1. Be objective and control emotions even when the other person does not. Disagree without becoming disagreeable.
> 2. Meet promptly but at a convenient time.
> 3. Interpret "fair' and 'right' in terms of what the rules, procedures, policies, or contract states.
> 4. Keep the grieved employee and the union (if one) informed.
> 5. Observe time limits and see that the union observes them.
> 6. Compromise - where workable.
>
> Don'ts
>
> 1. Be overly sensitive.

2. Bargain away established policy, procedures, rules or the contract through the grievance process.
3. Maintain a position when it is in error.
4. Let the union by-pass you - this undermines authority and prestige.
5. Settle the grievance when in doubt."[29]

The staff at all levels must be confident in the knowledge that each individual's grievance or complaint will be treated with the same degree of expediency and just as equitably as any other member's. To do other wise is to most assurdly invite hostility and division into the organization. Volkersz issues a sound reminder by informing us that:

> "Many grievances could easily be solved with a sense of humor and a hearty laugh. However, due process in grievance procedures is preferable and more conducive to good library service than institutional arrogance and paternalistic benevolence."[30]

Finally if there is a union in existence at a particular institution there will already be established procedures which are quite explicit and binding regarding grievances. In such a case new personnel, either management or staff, should be made aware of this. This will ward off many unexpectant problems. According to the results of a survey SORT (Staff Organization Roundtable - ALA) made of 144 libraries in 1968, most grievances in libraries follow the "line appeal" set up by the library administration and progress through five possible stages. These are:

"1. Immediate supervisor
2. Higher supervisor
3. Personnel librarian
4. Head Librarian
5. Library board "[31]

It was also reported in the survey that few examples were found of grievance committee activity, outside arbitration, or union action. It is interesting to note that from a number of responding libraries came suggestions about a variety of different organizations outside the library to which appeals can be made. These included:

"1. County employees' association
2. Civil service commission for handling job classification
3. A state employees' association
4. State labor mediation board
5. A union of municipal workers
6. The city manager
7. A faculty executive committee
8. State personnel board
9. City law department."[32]

Thus the question of how to handle complaints and grievances is one that must be approached with a great deal of knowledge and understanding and a great deal of caution. But it must be done, that is if management desires to have a contented and productive group of workers.

Footnotes

[1] Harmon Boyd, "Vigo County Public Library," Focus on Indiana Libraries 53 (September 1969): 131.

[2] Claire Connor, "Indianapolis-Marion County Public Library," Focus on Indiana Libraries 23(September 1969): 124.

[3] Fran Klinger, "Evansville-Vanderburgh County Public Library," Focus on Indiana Libraries 23(September 1969): 116.

[4] Ethel Gantz, "South Bend Public Library," Focus on Indiana Libraries 23 (September 1969): 129.

[5] Personnel Organization and Procedure: A Manual. Suggested for Use in Public Libraries, 2nd ed. (Chicago: American Library Association, 1968), p. 20.

[6] Tom Krasean, "Indiana State Library," Focus on Indiana Libraries 23(September 1969): 119.

[7] Margaret Jones,"East Chicago Public Library," Focus on Indiana Libraries 23(September 1969): 114.

[8] Connor, p. 124.

[9] Elsie Hammond, "Lake County Public Library," Focus on Indiana Libraries 23(September 1969): 128.

[10] Gantz, p. 129.

[11] Connor,p. 125.

[12] Boyd, p. 131.

[13] Connor, p. 125.

[14] Klinger, p. 116..

[15] Jerry Henry, "Kokomo Public Library," *Focus on Indiana Libraries* 23(September 1969): 126.

[16] Krasean, p. 120.

[17] Charles Seal, "Lets Take A Look At Our Staff Associations," *Focus on Indiana Libraries* 23(September 1969): 112.

[18] *Ibid*.

[19] *Ibid*.

[20] *Ibid*., p. 113.

[21] Klinger, p. 116.

[22] Lawrence J. Downey, "What Else Is There," *Focus on Indiana Libraries* 23(September 1969): 111.

[23] P. Anthony and W. P. Anthony, "Try a Problem Solving Approach to Grievance Handling," *Supervisory Management* (October 1971): 22.

[24] Ibid.

[25] *Ibid*., p. 24.

[26] R. J. Volkersz, "Grievance: First Step in Improved Library Government," *ALA Bulletin* (December 1969): 1567.

[27] Ibid.

[28] *Ibid*., p. 1568.

[29] Anthony and Anthony, p. 25.

[30] Volkersz, p. 1568.

[31] "Grievance Questionnaire Shows Appeal Procedure," *Library Journal* (May 15, 1968): 1956.

[32] *Ibid*., p. 157.

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